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HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY IN THE HIGHER SCHOOLS OF GERMANY

"IT has to be remarked," says Comenius, "that in every class, history, as the eye of life, should find a place, so that all that is most memorable in the past, both in deed and word may be known. This, so far from increasing the burden on pupils, will lighten their labors. Little text-books should be written, viz., one on biblical history; one on natural things; one on inventions and mechanical arts; one exhibiting the most illustrious examples of virtue; one on the various customs of nations; and, finally, one containing all that is most significant in the history of the world and especially of our own country."

It is remarkable that, notwithstanding the high regard in which the study of history was held both by Luther and Melanchthon, no serious attempt was made to introduce it into the secondary schools before the time of Comenius. The Jesuits were early impressed with the correctness of Comenius' ideas and gave history a place in their curriculum. Others, notably Francke and Leibnitz, did something for the teaching of history in the secondary schools, but so little time was given to the subject that the work degenerated into the mere memorizing of historical facts. Frederick the Great, in the truly rationalistic spirit, severely criticised the pedagogues of his day for stuffing the memories of the pupils, giving no heed whatsoever to the development of the powers of judgment. In his instructions to the Berlin *Ritterakademie* (1765) he said: "It is no longer permis-

sible for a young man who will live in the great world not to know the events which belong in the chain of European history." In his opinion a knowledge of the history of the classical world was of little value without the ability to apply it to modern conditions. The immediate outcome of the rationalistic movement was a change in the method of treating history, as well as a decided increase (four to six hours) in the number of week-hours devoted to the study. In the upper classes of some schools the method now frequently recommended could be found even then in actual operation. A whole semester, and in some instances an entire year, was devoted to an intensive study of special topics.

At the beginning of the present century when things were shaping for the subsequent development of the German school system the influence of F. A. Wolf was such as to retard the study of history. In his opinion nothing should be taught in a *Gymnasium* that did not serve directly as a preparation for the learned professions. Little can be gained from a study of modern history, he urges, that does not tend to narrow and pervert a young man's judgment. Mediæval history can contribute little because the events of that period are not such as to elevate or inspire. In fact ancient history is the only history of any value because in it we learn of the motives and acts of the greatest people the world has ever seen, of the causes that made them great and of the errors which brought about their ruin. Such knowledge must be not only a desirable but also an essential element in a well-rounded education. With Herbart history received a prominent place in the curriculum. He considered a knowledge of what man has done and suffered, of what he has tried to do and the reasons for his failures, as the surest means of rousing a pupil's interest in the past and inspiring him with lofty sentiments. History becomes, therefore, a study of particular value. Its object is not only intellectual but moral development. Old Testament history deserves a place beside that of Greece and Rome. Schleiermacher, too, called history the picture-book of ethics.

It will be seen that in the humanistic schools, where the chief end of education was a familiarity with classic authors, and where the whole course of training was purely formal, there was no place for history. But with the introduction of realistic notions through Locke, Comenius, and Rousseau, together with the utilitarian ideas which characterized the period of enlightenment, the study of history and geography was recommended for its practical worth. "A man," said Frederick the Great, "who does not imagine himself fallen from heaven, who does not date the history of the world from the day of his birth, must be curious to know what has taken place in all ages and in all lands." But neither Frederick the Great nor the educators of his time believed that a mere knowledge of useful facts is the chief end of the study of history. On the contrary it was held that the study of history offers the best opportunity for the development of the discriminative judgment. Properly presented it teaches the pupil to pass over the unessential and fasten upon the important links in the chain of causes. It affords scope for common-sense comparison and aids in the formation of judgments which have a practical bearing upon the affairs of everyday life. History has never been so strongly emphasized as in the latter half of the eighteenth century. In the opinion of Von Zedlitz, Minister of Education under Frederick the Great, six or seven hours a week were not too much time to give to historical studies. With the reorganization of the Prussian school system at the close of the Napoleonic wars three hours a week were assigned to history and geography (programme of 1816). As the schools came more and more under the influence of the humanistic leaders, and education became increasingly formal, history fell into the background—if not in theory at least in practice. As taught in the schools it amounted to little more than sketches of military campaigns and the memorizing of dates.

The new Prussian *Lehrplan* of 1892 lays great stress upon the language, literature and history of Germany. These must be the center to which all else tends. The secondary schools are

looked upon as the mainstay of the throne, and the supreme authority has declared that these schools shall turn out patriotic citizens. To this end nothing should be left undone to give the youth of the fatherland a critical insight into the history of the German Empire. As Goethe puts it, the best that we get from history is the enthusiasm which its arouses. With this in mind the education department of the Prussian government has set a new stamp on the educational value of history. It is held to be of worth primarily for its ethico-religious influence in the development of character.

Granted that history shall have a place in the curriculum, what kind of history should it be—political history? or something more comprehensive? national or general history? Obviously the gymnasial policy has been to consider political history as of little worth in comparison with the broader and more comprehensive history of civilization, and national history as narrow and one-sided when viewed in the light of general history. Prior to the reform of 1892, the secondary schools of Prussia accepted history as an end in itself without reference to its practical bearing in the training of citizens. "The object of historical instruction in the *Gymnasium*," according to the rescript of 1882, "is to arouse in the pupils respect for the moral greatness of individual men and nations, to make them conscious of their own imperfect insight, and to give them the ability to read understandingly the greatest historical classics." The *Lehrplan* of 1892 brings prominently to the front the necessity of understanding the events in German and Prussian history. It is the national history rather than the universal which is emphasized: the political which has culminated in a new and regenerated German Empire, rather than the general which deals with the salient points in the progress of civilization.

It shows clearly the determination of the government to make use of the schools in stemming the tides of socialism and liberalism. History is to be taught not altogether as a means for intellectual training, nor as an essential part of a liberal

education, nor yet as an independent science, but preëminently with a view to the making of patriotic citizens.

The new syllabus also shows a change in the arrangement of the course in history. Formerly there were two years of mythology and biography in the first part of the course, beginning with the legendary history of Greece and coming down to the early history of Germany. The new *Lehrplan* provides that in *Sexta* scenes from the national history shall be described, beginning with the events which are closely related to the pupils' own environment and working from the present back into the past. This regression continues throughout the first year and in *Quinta* it reaches the legendary history of Greece and Rome. The chief events of Grecian history to the death of Alexander the Great and of Roman history to the death of Augustus are taken up in the following year (*Quarta*). In *Untertertia* the chronological order is followed to the end of the Middle Ages. *Obertertia* continues the work to the accession of Frederick the Great with special reference to the history of Brandenburg. *Untersecunda* fills out the course to the present time. Up to this point the course is the same for both six-year and nine-year schools. The three upper grades of the latter begin again with an intensive study of Grecian and Roman history in *Obersecunda*, of the mediæval and modern history to the end of the Thirty Years' War in *Unterprima*, and of the later developments down to the present time in *Oberprima*.

The introduction of the *Abschlussprüfung* at the end of *Untersecunda* determined the allotment of the work in the middle and upper grades. The course as a whole, however, has thereby been cut up into three distinct parts: the first of these proceeds from the present back to the legendary history of the Greeks; the second begins with early Grecian history and traces the causal series, so far at least as the German people are concerned, down to the present; the third is but a larger circle drawn around the other two.

Teachers of history who believe in maintaining a strict continuity and who think that the explanation of present events is

to be sought in causes lying in the past have no faith in the manner of treatment suggested for the first and second years in the Prussian course; and least of all will they tolerate the division in the courses at the end of the first six years. Another class of educators is unalterably opposed to the allotment of only two years to ancient history, one year of which (*Quarta*) is at the very beginning of the true historical course. Furthermore it has been pointed out that, inasmuch as the leaving examinations are based solely upon the work of *Untersecunda* and *Oberprima* respectively, no direct tests can be made of scholars' attainments in either Grecian or Roman history, and that this applies no less to the *Gymnasien* than to the *Real*-schools.

Prussia may change her course of study as often as she pleases; she may dictate what shall be taken up in each class, but she cannot change the views of her teachers by a ministerial rescript. To all appearances the new order has served to introduce only confusion into the history teaching of most schools. The veterans educated and trained under the old dispensation are not anxious, as a rule, to adapt themselves to the new requirements which have all the appearance of using the teachers as props for bolstering up the throne. I regret to say that I was unable to find in any Prussian school what might be considered as a typical illustration of the Prussian programme. Furthermore very few of the German states have followed Prussia's lead in the matter of teaching history.

There are those who maintain that the Emperor's idea of making the special aim of historical study the fostering of a national spirit, while in theory perfectly correct, is nevertheless pedagogically shortsighted. They maintain that patriotism should be more than mere enthusiasm, more enduring than the frothy exuberance of spirits that arises from the contemplation of great deeds; that love of country and of king depends upon a firm and unchangeable character. It follows, therefore, that character-building must at least go hand in hand with the development of the patriotic spirit. The best representatives of this school are unquestionably the Herbartians.

The lamented Dr. Frick, of Halle, untiringly advocated more rational methods in the teaching of history. Probably no man in Germany has done more than he in working out a course of study closely correlated with the work in German, the classical languages, geography and religion. He had great influence in the Berlin conference, and his views were largely instrumental in effecting some of the more important changes there made. It is to be regretted, however, that other interests interfered with the complete expression of his views.

The teaching of geography in the German schools has become a highly perfected art. I am not sure but geography is the best taught subject, on the whole, of all the subjects of the curriculum. At any rate one sees less of offensive formalism and more of intelligent freedom in the treatment of geographical topics than in almost any other sphere. In its present form geography is a very modern subject. It took its rise from Karl Ritter, who acknowledged his indebtedness to Pestalozzi for suggestions as to natural methods of teaching. And from that day to this there has been no lack of university instruction for the teachers of the secondary and normal schools. The influence of a few such men as Ratzel, of Leipsic; Kiepert, of Berlin; Kirchhoff, of Halle; and Sievers, of Giessen—all of them interested in the training of teachers—is sufficient to give geography a high rank in the schools.

But geography, so far as it has to do with the earth as the abode of man, is inseparable from history. And in the secondary schools of Germany history and geography keep even step. Except possibly in the first two years of the course, geography is nowhere an independent study in the higher schools. The study of topography and of political and commercial geography and the drawing of maps are closely correlated with the work in history. The general truths of mathematical and physical geography which have no direct bearing upon the events of history are taught incidentally, one might say, in the lower grades. On the other hand the more important facts of physical geography, meteorology and geology are generally carefully

expounded in the best German schools as a partial explanation of political and social conditions. It is for this reason that in nearly all secondary-school programmes of Germany, history and geography are classed together as a single subject. In so doing, to be sure, geography loses some of the characteristics which would naturally place it among the natural sciences, but as the object both in history and geography is not so much to develop an accurate scientific knowledge of these subjects as the formation of certain habits of thought and feeling the correlation is a distinct gain for both studies. The union is made still closer by placing the instruction of both in the hands of the same teacher.

As a typical example of those schools in which history and geography seem to have a place commensurate with their value as an educational means, and in which the problems of historical and geographical teaching are being solved in the best pedagogical manner, I select the *Gymnasium* of Jena. The *Director* of the school, Dr. G. Richter, was an intimate friend of Dr. Frick and for several years co-editor with him of the *Lehrproben und Lehrgänge* in which some of the best pedagogical work of the secondary schools has been published. Dr. Richter, however, is more than an expounder of the views which have made Dr. Frick famous. He has associated with him in his school faculty several able young men who are in entire accord with the Herbartian views as modified by Drs. Frick and Richter. It is to their united efforts that success is due.

The programme for history and geography in the first two classes of the Jena *Gymnasium* is as follows:

SEXTA: *History and German*, 3 hours. Stories from the *Odyssey* and selections from German legendary history. *Geography*, 2 hours. (a) Simple geographical notions to be gained from Jena and the surrounding country. Eleven excursions to various points of interest in the neighborhood. (b) Thuringia — (1) The map; (2) course of the Saale as far as Halle; (3) Ilm; (4) Unstrut; (5) Elster; (6) Werra as far as Eschwege; (7) Itz; (8) Railroads. Chief topics: elevations, climate,

products, industry, trade, religion and political divisions. Throughout the entire year observations of the temperature, winds, position and movements of the sun and moon, all of which are entered in a notebook.

QUINTA: *History and Geography*, 4 hours. (a) German mythology and history, chiefly Thuringian; selections of typical scenes. With the extension of the history proceeds the gradual development of the geography until it includes all Germany. Map-drawing, at first of Germany, then a gradual extension to all other European countries.

The Jena programme of the work for the first two classes differs from the Prussian syllabus in that comparatively little attention is given to classical mythology. In fact, stories from the *Odyssey* are about all that are not German. In *Sexta* there is very little of what could be called under any stretch of imagination historical work, and, contrary to the Prussian plan, the entire time of *Quinta* is devoted to a systematic description of the chief events in German history.

In *Sexta* the geographical instruction is particularly interesting. The *Gymnasium* is situated on ground once occupied by the city walls. The broad street now separating the old city from its modern suburbs gives a starting point for a map of the town. It is linked, too, with historical associations that easily arouse the interest of the pupils. Pictures of the old town before the walls were removed are still to be had. An occasional watch-tower yet remains standing as a monument of former times. A few minutes' walk brings the teacher with his class to one of a dozen points of interest in the town. The River Saale with its tributaries can be traced for fifteen or twenty miles from the heights. The location of a dozen villages can be indicated on the map as a result of a single excursion to a neighboring hill-top. In fact, the excursions which are always made by teacher and pupils during this first year furnish the fundamental concepts necessary at the beginning of geographical study, and the observations taken day by day of the movements of heavenly bodies, fluctuations in temperature, and changes of the wind, are

the basis of all future work in mathematical geography and meteorology.

The work of *Quinta* is divided into some thirty or forty topics, the most of which can be centered about some illustrious man or great event. These embrace a description of the Cimbri and Teutons, their subjugation and liberation; stories of Drusus, Germanicus and Armin, together with the geography of western Germany; the Slavic invasions of eastern Germany; the coming of the Christians; Charlemagne and his times; the building of the Wartburg; the Crusades; great Thuringian rulers; founding of the universities; Hussites in Thuringia and the Reformation; the Thirty Years' War; Brandenburg and Prussia; Karl August, Goethe, and Schiller; Napoleon, and the battles of Jena and Leipsic; Stein, Blücher, and Scharnhorst; the new German Empire; Wilhelm I, Bismarck, and Moltke.

The Jena *Gymnasium* is peculiarly fortunate in having some of the best teachers which it has ever been my privilege to hear. The younger members of the faculty in particular have given much time and labor to the development of rational methods in the teaching of history and geography. In the lower grades a typical recitation begins with a review of such parts of previous lessons as may be necessary for the proper understanding and assimilation of the topic about to be presented. From five to ten minutes of the hour may pass in this way. Then comes the narration of the new story with particular emphasis upon certain important events, personages and dates. As the teacher proceeds with the story he develops an outline on the board which he has previously carefully prepared. As he places this upon the board, point by point, the pupils enter it into their notebooks. Historical pictures are freely used to bring out clearly references made to the military, social, family, or industrial life of the times.

This use of illustrative material, be it said, is more common in German schools than in American. It may be in a large measure due to the lamentable fact that we in America are at a serious disadvantage in this respect. Our pictures, charts and

maps are decidedly inferior to the German in point of accuracy, execution and artistic merit. The German teachers of *Sexta* and *Quinta* have at command an elaborate series of pictures and charts illustrating almost every phase of national life from the earliest times to the present. What cannot be obtained by reproduction of famous works of art is supplied in the form of ideal illustrations executed in accordance with the best scholarship obtainable.

The pedagogical value of such use of pictures in class work, as Germans maintain, is very great. It is said that the child living in the present and thinking in the terms of the present is unable to adjust himself to the past without great efforts of the imagination. It is peculiarly the function of pictures to assist the mind of the child in grasping the real significance of past events. They are of particular importance, too, in the teaching of geography. At first the child acquires a store of geographical ideas from observation of his local environment. The moment he is asked to go beyond his actual experience he must draw upon his imagination. It is too much to assume that he will grasp the full significance of geographical facts which are totally unconnected with anything already known; but pictures properly executed may be of the greatest service in the development of the constructive imagination provided care be taken that the child interpret correctly what the picture presents.

In the presentation of the lesson the teacher will of necessity often be obliged to consider the topography of the country in which the scene of the story is laid. This involves an elaboration of the geographical knowledge of the class. It may happen that a halt must be called in the development of the historical side in order that maps of the region may be drawn and the physical characteristics of the country carefully studied. In general it is expected that the equivalent of one or two hours a week will be given to this phase of the work during the first four or five years of the course. If no such interruptions are necessary the teacher will give not more than half of the hour to the presentation of new material.

The next step in the lesson is the oral reproduction by the

pupils of what has just been told them according to the outline as it stands before them on the board. No one who has observed this part of the recitation in the Jena *Gymnasium* can fail to be impressed with the intense interest manifested by the pupils as shown in their eagerness to tell what they know and to discuss its consequences.

There is a life and vigor to be found here, which, I regret to say, I rarely saw elsewhere. One pupil begins to tell the story and at a convenient resting point he is succeeded by another and so on in regular order until perchance some wrong impression calls up a more general class discussion. Whenever an important name or date occurs the pupils rise and repeat it in concert; thus the attention of all is fixed more closely upon the topical outline of the lesson.

It would hardly be doing the Hebartian teacher justice to say that the oral reproduction is the final step of the lesson. He would certainly consider his work very much of a failure if in addition to proper preparation and presentation he did not proceed to generalize and to make application of the truth of the lesson to the everyday life of the scholars. A Jena teacher will rarely fail in this respect. The lesson is a work of art.

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(To be concluded.)

SECONDARY EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES¹ HISTORICAL SKETCH

II.

The early secondary schools of the colonies, while substantially of one type, took different names. They were called Latin Grammar Schools; or for short, Grammar Schools, like their English prototypes. Less frequently the name was shortened to Latin School. In some places they were called Public Schools, as are the great classical schools of England at the present time. The name Free School, also in use in the mother country, was frequently employed. This title seems to have been used, as pointed out by Professor Basil Sollers, merely "as a compound name indicating a certain grade of instruction, such as we would call 'liberal,' without assigning to the adjective any descriptive force whatever."² In still other cases, the several names already enumerated were combined in various ways.

A melancholy interest attaches to the first colonial grammar school of which we have record. This school was decreed in 1621 by the Virginia Company of London, and was to be located at Charles City, Va. The colony had before this time set hopefully about the establishment of a college. Liberal endowment was provided; but it was proposed that the erection of buildings be postponed, and that in the meantime a free school should be opened, which should prepare students for entrance upon the college studies. Special funds were subscribed for this purpose and a tract of land was set apart as an endowment. Everything

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²STEINER, *History of education in Maryland*, p. 20, footnote. Further discussion of the question may be found in BARNARD'S *American Journal of Education*, I, 298, 299, footnotes; and ADAMS, *The College of William and Mary*, p. 13. Professor Sollers' suggestion that the term "free school" may have followed the analogy of "free chapel," and so have designated a school not attached to a monastery, seems to me worth following up with a more extended inquiry.

seemed hopeful, when in 1622 the terrible Indian massacre swept away all of these promising beginnings, together with the lives of more than three hundred of the colonists.¹

It is stated that another free school was established at Elizabeth City in 1642; yet Governor Berkeley was able in 1670 to say, "But, I thank God, there are no free schools." The project of a college was realized at last, in 1693, with the founding of William and Mary College, "to the end that the Church of Virginia may be furnished with a seminary of ministers of the gospel, and that the youth may be piously educated in good letters and manners, and that the Christian faith may be propagated amongst the Western Indians, to the glory of Almighty God." A grammar school was established in connection with the college "for the immediate education of the youth of the colony in the Latin and Greek tongues," and was maintained until 1779, when it was abolished through the influence of Thomas Jefferson.

Edward Everett Hale has this to say in a recent article on "The Higher Life of Boston": "It may be merely a fancy of mine that the destinies of Boston have been largely affected by the establishment here in 1635 of what they called a 'Grammar School,' and by the loyalty and pride by which that school has always been maintained. But I think this fancy will bear examination. There was then no grammar but Latin grammar, or Greek or Hebrew. So the establishment of a free Grammar School in the little village meant that from that time forward there was a school where every boy might study the Latin and Greek languages."²

This Boston Latin School is the patriarch of our institutions of secondary education. On the 16th of April 1635, the Boston town meeting voted "that our brother Philemon Pormont shall be intreated to become scholemaster, for the teaching and nourtering of children among us." This was the only town

¹ The documentary history of this school may be found in NEILL's *History of the Virginia Company of London*, pp. 251-257. Mr. Neill observes that the last statement relative to the school bears date of 1625, "and it was probably never erected."

² The *Outlook*, Vol. LIII, No. 13 (March 28, 1896).

school in Boston until 1682. Leading citizens contributed to its support. The town set apart certain islands in the harbor, the rent of which was to go to the school. School fees were moreover collected of the boys in attendance; but it was distinctly provided that Indian children should be taught gratis.

Ezekiel Cheever was in charge of this school from 1670 to 1708. Under his direction it rose to great eminence in the colonies.

In the words of one of its most notable schoolboys: "The real interest of the beginning of the school is the large idea and scale on which it started. It taught the children, little Indians and all, to read and write. But there seems every reason to suppose that it taught also the Latin tongue, and all that was deemed the higher knowledge. . . . It was the classic culture in those earliest days that bound the Latin School and Harvard College close together. The college is young beside our venerable school. It did not come to birth till we were four years old. But when the college had been founded, it and the school became, and ever since have made, one system of continuous education."¹

Before the year 1647, six other Massachusetts towns had followed the lead of Boston in establishing grammar schools. These were Charlestown, Salem, Ipswich, Cambridge, Roxbury, and Dorchester.

The same Ezekiel Cheever, who made illustrious the first century of the Boston Latin School, had in his young manhood opened a school in New Haven colony. On Christmas day, 1641, it was voted "thatt a free schoole be set up in this towne and our pastor Mr. Davenport, together with the magistrates, shall consider whatt yearly allowance is meet to be given to itt out of the common stock of the towne, and allso whatt rules and orders are meet to be observed in and about the same." Mr. Cheever was master of this school until 1650, when he removed to Ipswich, doubtless because of a church censure

¹ Address by PHILLIPS BROOKS on "The Boston Latin School," the *New England Magazine*, Vol. VIII, p. 686.

passed upon him in 1649 on account of "his contradicting, stiff, and proud frame of spirit."

Of the remaining four towns included within the New Haven colony, Guilford was not later than 1646 in establishing a school; and by 1657 Milford had "made provision in a comfortable way." It does not appear whether these schools were of a higher grade, or merely for beginners. But in 1660, their means not being adequate for the maintenance of a grammar school in each plantation, the towns united in the establishment of a "colony grammar school." This school continued for only two years.

Edward Hopkins, sometime governor of Connecticut colony, dying in England, left by will considerable property vested in trustees in Connecticut and New Haven colonies "to give some encouragement in those foreign plantations for the breeding up of hopeful youths, both at the grammar school and college, for the public service of the country in future time." The fathers of New Haven colony hoped to make this bequest the foundation of a college in their jurisdiction. Innumerable hindrances intervened, however; the bequest was finally divided between the towns of New Haven, Hartford, and Hadley, a portion going also to Harvard College. The Colony Grammar School at New Haven received aid from the fund during its short career. Finally, in 1664, New Haven's share of the legacy was settled upon the grammar school of the town, known since then and to the present day as the Hopkins Grammar School.

In both Hartford and New Haven¹ there is some evidence of the existence of schools as early as 1639. Certain it is that

¹MR. BARNARD (*Journal of Education*, Vol. I, p. 298) says of Mr. Cheever, "His first engagement was in the only school, which was opened within the first year of the settlement of the colony, to which the 'pastor, Mr. Davenport, together with the magistrates,' were ordered 'to consider what yearly allowance is meet to be given it out of the common stock of the town.' In 1641 a second and higher grade of school was established, under Mr. Cheever's charge." DR. HINSDALE (*Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1892-3*, p. 1243) seems to imply that a grammar school was not established until "two or three years later" (than 1641), when Mr. Cheever was placed in charge. I have followed MR. STEINER'S account (*The history of education in Connecticut*, pp., 15, 16).

Hartford in 1642 made an appropriation to a town school and that Mr. William Andrews, another famous master in his day, was employed as the teacher.

The West India Company sent out a "Latin schoolmaster" to New Amsterdam in 1659. There had been an elementary school in the colony since 1633; but the people in their petition to the Company represent that there is no school nearer than New England where their children can learn Latin. Dr. Alexander Corolus Curtius was the first teacher of this school. Under his successor, Luyck, it attracted pupils from Fort Orange, the Delaware, and Virginia. This school was continued by the English for eight years after the change of rule. A free grammar school was partially endowed on the King's Farm in 1702. In 1732 a "free school for teaching the Latin and Greek and practical branches of mathematics" was incorporated.

Turning to Pennsylvania, we find that in 1670 Chr. Taylor opened a classical school at Waltham Abbey. He was not able to show a license from the Bishop of the diocese,¹ however, and was obliged to give up the undertaking. The first regular school of high grade in Pennsylvania was opened on Tinicum Island in 1684. In 1689 a public grammar school was established by Friends in Philadelphia, under directions from William Penn. This school was repeatedly chartered, undergoing changes in its

¹ WICKERSHAM, *A history of education in Pennsylvania*, p. 28. The American churches at this time belonged to the diocese of London. See DORCHESTER, *Christianity in the United States*, New York: 1889; p. 36.

In this connection the following passage from KNIGHT'S *Life of Dr. John Colet* is of interest:

"The state of schools in London before Dean Colet's foundation was to this effect: the chancellor of Paul's (as in all the ancient cathedral churches) was master of the schools (*magister scholarum*), having the direction and government of literature, not only within the church but within the whole city; so that all the masters and teachers of grammar depended on him and were subject to him."—BARNARD'S *Am. Jour. Ed.*, XVI, 667.

DR. SPECHT has made mention of the strife which arose in the thirteenth century between the newly organized city schools in some of the German municipalities and the authorities of the cathedral schools, who claimed and exercised supervision over the other schools of the diocese. See *Geschichte des Unterrichtswesens in Deutschland*, Stuttgart, 1885; pp. 251-253.

management. It has continued to flourish down to the present time, and is known as the William Penn Charter School.

In Maryland, King William's School was established at Annapolis under legislative enactment of 1696. Previous to this, Ralph Crouch, gentleman, is said to have "opened schools for teaching humanities," between the years 1639 and 1659. Mr. Crouch was closely associated with the Jesuits, and after his return to Europe was admitted to the order. A priest, writing in 1681, tells of a "school for humanities," opened four years before that time, in which some of the native youth had made good progress. Not far from the time of the Revolution the Rev. Jona. Boucher, the head of an important private school in Annapolis, declared that "there is not yet (in Maryland) a single college and only one school with an endowment adequate to the maintenance of even a common mechanic. What is still less creditable is that two-thirds of the little education we receive is derived from instructors, who are either indented servants or transported felons."¹

In South Carolina, perhaps more than in any other colony, it was the prevalent practice of the planters to send their sons to England for an education. There seems to have been no provision for schools in the colony prior to the year 1710. In that year, and again two years later, laws were passed "for founding and erecting a free school in Charlestown for the use of the inhabitants of South Carolina."² The act of 1712 provided, among other things, "that the person to be master of the said school shall be of the religion of the Church of England, and conform to the same, and shall be capable to teach the learned languages, that is to say, Latin and Greek tongues."³ In 1734, a grammar school was incorporated, to be located at the town of Dorchester "for the use of the inhabitants of the province of South Carolina." According to Mr. Edward McCready, Jr., there were in South Carolina up to the close of the Revolution "eleven public and three charitable grammar schools"⁴ of which record

¹ STEINER, *Address at the alumni reunion of Frederick College, June 22, 1892.*

² See MERIWETHER, *History of higher education in South Carolina*, p. 212.

³ *Id.*, p. 221.

⁴ *Id.*, p. 227.

can be found. Of these schools, especial mention should be made, in addition to those already named, of the "Beresford Bounty" school near Charleston and the school of the Winyaw Indigo Society (incorporated in 1756) at Georgetown. Both of these schools were well endowed and both continued in effective operation up to the time of the Civil War; the latter, in fact, is continued in the present public school of Georgetown.

We are told, moreover, that private schools of a secondary grade flourished in the colony; and that in connection with the Presbyterian churches in the upper country instruction was frequently given in the classic languages. This is one of the ways in which the influence of Princeton College made itself felt not only in South Carolina but in other extensive regions of the Southern and Middle States.

About the year 1726, the Rev. William Tennent established his "Log College" at Neshaminy, some miles north of Philadelphia. This school won the strong commendation of George Whitfield, who visited it on one of his tours through the colonies. Even in its earlier years it sent abroad a powerful influence in the direction of piety and classical learning.¹ It was this school which, according to the common account, grew at length into the College of New Jersey, better known as Princeton College.²

The scattered plantations of North Carolina were not favorable to the establishment of schools. Governor Johnson said in 1736: "That the legislature has never yet taken the least care to erect one school which deserves the name, in this wide extended country, must in the judgment of all thinking men, be reckoned one of our greatest misfortunes."³

Mr. Charles Lee Smith states that, "The first act establish-

¹ MR. CHARLES LEE SMITH notes that, "The early classical schools of the Presbyterian Church in North Carolina, Virginia, and New Jersey were called 'log colleges,'" presumably with reference to this parent school of Mr. Tennent's: *The history of education in North Carolina*, p. 27, footnote.

² But see the account in PRESIDENT JOHN MACLEAN'S *History of the College of New Jersey* (Philadelphia, 1877), p. 57. According to this passage, the Log College was not the source but only a tributary of the College of New Jersey.

³ Quoted by CHARLES LEE SMITH, *The history of education in North Carolina*, p. 21.

ing a free school by the government was passed in 1749;" but it is not clear that the school thus legalized was ever open. The same author adds that, "In North Carolina, as in several other states, the higher education owes its first impulse to the Presbyterian Church and Princeton College." The Rev. James Tate established a classical school in the city of Wilmington about 1760. The Rev. David Caldwell, D.D., established his classical school in Guilford county in 1766 or 1767, which soon became "one of the most noted schools of the South." A classical school, established in 1767 at the Sugar Creek Presbyterian Church, near Charlotte, was the beginning of Queen's College, afterwards (1777) chartered by the state legislature as Liberty Hall Academy.

In Rhode Island, a beginning in secondary education was made in 1764, by the establishment of the University Grammar School at Warren. James Manning was the first master of this school as he was afterwards the first president of Brown University. In fact, the school was the direct forerunner of the college, and only preceded the higher institution by a few months. The school has continued to the present day, being closely connected with the college throughout the greater part of its history.

Thus far we have been concerned with individual schools, and have noted their establishment in the most of the colonies. But among the most remarkable educational movements of the colonial period are the steps which were taken in several of the colonies toward the establishment of a complete system of secondary education. Massachusetts was the leader in this movement. The general court passed in 1647 an education act which displayed far-sighted statesmanship, the more surprising that it went beyond anything that had then or has even yet been attempted in the mother country. The noble language of this law has been often quoted; but it is worthy of repetition, and this sketch would be incomplete without it. It reads as follows:

It being one of the chief projects of that old deluder, Satan, to keep men from the knowledge of the Scriptures, as in former times, keeping them in an unknown tongue, so in these later times, by persuading from the use of

tongues; so that at last the true sense and meaning of the original might be clouded and corrupted with false glosses of deceivers';¹ and to the end that learning may not be buried in the graves of our forefathers, in church and commonwealth, the Lord assisting our endeavors: It is therefore ordered by this Court and authority thereof that every township within this jurisdiction, after the Lord hath increased them to the number of fifty householders, shall then forthwith appoint one within their town to teach all such children as shall resort to him, to write and read; whose wages shall be paid, either by the parents or masters of such children, or by the inhabitants in general, by way of supply, as the major part of those who order the prudentials of the town shall appoint; provided that those who send their children be not oppressed by paying much more than they can have them taught for in the adjoining towns.

And it is further ordered that where any town shall increase to the number of one hundred families or householders, they shall set up a grammar school, the master thereof being able to instruct youths so far as they may be fitted for the university; and if any town neglect the performance hereof, above one year, then every such town shall pay five pounds per annum to the next such school, till they shall perform this order.

Connecticut colony, in 1650, adopted a school law patterned after that of Massachusetts. The provision for grammar schools is almost identical. But in 1672 the general court granted to each of the four county towns in the colony 600 acres of land "for the benefit of a grammer schoole;" and later in the same year the requirement of a grammar school to each town of one hundred families was changed to one for each county town. This act was in force until 1798. The law of that year removed the requirement that county towns maintain a Latin school; but substituted the provision that any school society might, by a two-thirds vote, establish a higher school.

We see in this provision of the Connecticut law of 1672 an early appearance of an idea which we shall find frequently reappearing: the idea that there should be a secondary school for every county in the land.² States remote from one another

¹ This language presents an interesting parallel to that of Martin Luther in his letter to the magistrates of Germany (1524). See PAINTER, *Luther on education* (Philadelphia: 1889), chapter ix, for the text of this letter in an English translation.

² Elisha Ticknor, in 1789, urged in the "Massachusetts Magazine" the establish-

took up this same view; and we have seen it recently coming into prominence in the discussion of secondary education in England.

New Hampshire was subject to the Massachusetts law until 1693, when a similar provision was made for the schools of the then separate province.¹

Maryland started in 1696 with a comprehensive plan for providing each county with its grammar school. The act of that year created a corporation with the name of "the rectors, governors, trustees, and visitors of the free schools of Maryland." This corporation was instructed to erect a school at Annapolis (King William's School). When the buildings of this school were completed, and a revenue of £120 yearly was secured, they were to proceed to erect a similar school in another county. When this second school had reached a like stage of equipment and endowment, they were to take similar steps in a third county; and so on till all of the counties were provided. The scheme was a promising one and evinced a most praiseworthy interest in the advancement of a high grade of instruction. But the corporation got no further than the establishment of the one school at Annapolis.

Some attempt was evidently made in South Carolina to carry out a general system of schools for the state. The same act (that of 1712) which provided for the grammar school at Charleston, assured to the master of that school a payment of one hundred pounds per annum out of the public treasury of the Province; and provided further "that as soon as a schoolmaster is settled in any other or all the rest of the Parishes of this Province, and approved by the Vestry of such Parish or Parishes, such schoolmaster so approved from time to time shall receive the sum of ten pounds per annum out of the public treasury."² Another act, passed in 1722, authorized the justices of county and precinct courts to establish a free school in each

ment of a system of "county schools to fit young gentlemen for college and school-keeping." BOONE, *Education in the United States*, p. 127.

¹ BOONE, *Education in the United States*, p. 50.

² Quoted by MERIWETHER, *op. cit.*, p. 221.

county and precinct, raising funds for the purpose by a tax on lands and slaves. These justices were to appoint masters "well skilled in the Latin tongue," who were allowed twenty-five pounds "proclamation money" per annum.¹ It does not appear, however, that these statutes were ever effective in promoting the establishment of schools outside of Charleston.

Mr. Hildreth in his account of the reorganization of state governments after the Declaration of Independence has this to say of the system of public schools then in existence:

"These town schools [of Massachusetts], and the same was the case in New Hampshire and Connecticut, and also with the county schools of Maryland, were continued on their old colonial footing. It was only these four states that could boast anything like a system of public education, and many years elapsed before their example was imitated."²

These early grammar schools, even more than their English namesakes, were generally intended to serve as preparatory schools for college; and according to the views of the time were for boys destined for one of the learned professions, usually the ministry. The idea of education for "culture," for the development of the individual, as itself a thing to be sought and prized, was not abroad in the colonies. Education was regarded as a fitting for the duties of life. A sturdy institutionalism pervaded all thought upon this subject. It remained for Rousseau and the eighteenth century to bring in that individualism which has so largely tinged the pedagogic thought of the past hundred years.

In February 1668, John Davenport, becoming somewhat discouraged at the small attendance in the grammar school at New Haven, came into the town meeting and "propounded to the town, whether they would send their children to the school, to be taught for the fitting them for the service of God, in church and commonwealth." Thereupon one citizen "declared

¹ Quoted by MERIWETHER, *op. cit.*, p. 214.

² *The history of the United States of America*, New York: 1874; Vol. III, p. 386.

his purpose of bringing up one of his sons to learning;" and one after another followed his example.¹

The minutes of the Virginia Company of London contain the following passages with reference to the proposed school at Charles City:

As also for that it was impossible with so small a proportion, to compasse so great a charge as the buildinge of a Church would require, they therefore conceaued it most fitt to resolute for the erectinge of a publique free schoole, wch, being for the educacion of Children and groundinge of them in the principles of religion. Ciuitiy of life and humane learninge seemed to carry with it the greatest weight and highest consequence unto the plantaçons as that whereof both Church and Comon wealth take their originall foundaçon and happie estate, this beinge also like to proue a work most acceptable unto the Planters, through want whereof they haue bin hitherto constrained to their great costs to send their Children from thence hither to be taught.²

It was also thought fitt that this, as a Collegiate or free schoole, should have dependance upon the Colledge in Virginia wch should be made capable to receaue Schollers from the schoole into such Scollershipps and fellowshipps of said Colledge shall be endowed withall for the aduancement of schollers as they arise by degrees and deserts in learninge.³

Dr. Bray, the famous commissary of the Bishop of London in Maryland, wrote in 1700:

And that a perpetual succession of Protestant divines of the Church of England may be provided for the propagation of the true Christian religion in the said colony, his excellency hath, by the consent of the council and burgesses in assembly, promoted a law vesting a power in certain trustees for erecting one free school in each county, for instructing the youth of the said province in arithmetic, navigation, and all useful learning, but chiefly for the fitting such as are disposed to study divinity, to be further educated at His Majesty's College Royal in Virginia, in order upon their return to be ordained by the Bishop of London's suffragan residing in this province.⁴

Quotations might be multiplied, all tending to show that these schools were intended chiefly as preparatory to college; that school and college were alike regarded as seminaries in

¹ BACON, *An historical discourse on the two hundredth anniversary of the founding of the Hopkins Grammar School, New Haven, Connecticut*, pp. 31, 32.

² NEILL, *History of the Virginia Company of London*, p. 254.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 255.

⁴ STEINER, *History of education in Maryland*, p. 22, footnote.

which the youth were to be prepared for the service of church and commonwealth; and that by far the greatest emphasis was placed upon the purpose of raising up well-qualified ministers of the gospel.¹

Doubtless one reason for the close connection of the grammar school with the college in those days was the fact that there was no generally felt need of a middle-class education. The great body of the people needed to know how to read, write, and cipher. The ministers and magistrates required the full discipline of a college course. For the most part, then, the sending of a boy to the grammar school signified a more or less definite intention to send him eventually to college. But this was of course subject to the aptitude for studies which he displayed in the lower school.

Ian Maclaren has drawn a most attractive picture of the old Scotch dominie who "had an unerring scent for 'pairs' in his laddies." "It was Latin Domsie hunted for as for fine gold, and when he found the smack of it in a lad he rejoiced openly. He counted it a day in his life when he knew certainly that he had hit on another scholar." "Then the 'schule' knew that Geordie Hoo was marked for college." This search for possible collegians was a regular part of the occupation of the master of one of the old grammar schools of the colonies; and it was none the less true there than in Drumtochty that when such a boy had been discovered "his brothers and sisters would give their wages, and the family would live on skim milk and oat cake, to let him have his chance."

This service that the schools rendered in discovering capabilities for higher things, is one of the most interesting aspects of the educational history of the time. The master was an intellectual winnower, and separated out the wheat from the chaff. It would be too much to assert that his work was always well done. It too often happened that competent men could not be got for the schools. Too often they were put under the charge

¹ President Clap of Yale College said in 1754, in his tract on the *Religious constitution of colleges*, "Colleges are societies of ministers for training up persons for the work of the ministry." See STEINER, *The history of education in Connecticut*, p. 104.

of a young graduate, to give him a living till he was ready to assume a pastorate. In the eighteenth century, when persecution had ceased to drive men of first rate abilities out of England, and learning had to some degree been buried in the graves of their forefathers, as the early colonists feared, there was a dearth of good schoolmasters; yet even then there were bright examples of faithful, discriminating instruction.

We shall see that at the time of transition from the era of the grammar schools to that of the academies, Thomas Jefferson proposed to incorporate into the educational system of Virginia a regular method for the selection of superiorities, as Fouillée would describe it. The bill which Jefferson introduced would have made it one chief occupation of the schools of Virginia to discover talent and give it a chance.

It was not only winnowing that engaged the master's attention, but threshing, too. The discipline of the grammar school, no less than that of the schools of lower grade, was harsh. Flogging survived on into the present century in the Boston Latin School: public flogging, too. The records of the Hopkins school at New Haven tell of hard struggles between master and pupils; nor do we have to go back to the earlier history of the school to find evidence of the liberal use of the rod.

The course of study consisted of much Latin, together with some Greek, and instruction in religion. There was apparently little else.¹ Naturally the schools that had for their chief mission to prepare for college devoted themselves to such studies as were prescribed as requirements for admission to college. And the admission requirements were almost wholly limited to the classic languages. Says Cotton Mather:

When scholars had so far profited at the grammar schools, that they could read any *classical author* into English, and readily make and speak

¹ This statement, however, needs one important qualification. There is evidence that in several of the colonies, e. g., Maryland, New York, Pennsylvania, there were grammar schools in which, along with the classics, mathematics was taught, with especial reference to its practical applications, as in surveying and navigation. These schools were in this respect prototypes of the academies, in some of which great stress was laid on such studies.

true Latin, and write it in *verse* as well as *prose*; and perfectly decline the paradigms of nouns and verbs in the Greek tongue, they were judged capable of admission in *Harvard-Colledge*.¹

These requirements, established by President Dunster in 1642, remained without substantial change at least to the end of the seventeenth century.

In the middle of the eighteenth century, the requirements for admission to Princeton College are stated as follows:

Candidates for admission into the lowest or Freshman class must be capable of composing grammatical Latin, translating Virgil, Cicero's Orations, and the four Evangelists in Greek; and by a late order (made in Mr. Davies's administration) must understand the principal rules of vulgar arithmetic.²

As for the organization and control of these schools, we are struck with the interesting combination of state, ecclesiastical, and private agency which it presents. Throughout this period, a large part of the secondary education of the colonies was imparted by private tutors, and particularly ministers in their own private studies. A more highly developed organization presents itself in the private secondary schools which were established in considerable numbers, some of them by teachers of character and ability, but more by irresponsible adventurers from the old world. In tracing the establishment of schools of a public character, it is a well-nigh hopeless task to undertake to disentangle the agency of the state from that of the church, as Dr. Magoun sought to do in his notable paper on "The Source of American Education."³ We are dealing with a time when the church, whether formally established or not, exercised great influence over the acts of the commonwealth; and when the state regarded provision for the eternal salvation of its citizens as one of its proper functions and the most important of all. The religious purpose of the schools of this period is sufficiently manifest from the quotations already presented. But it is worthy of remark that in some of the colonies the civil authorities had taken a

¹ *Magnalia Christi Americana*. American edition of 1820; Vol. II, p. 9.

² See SMITH, *The history of education in North Carolina*, p. 28.

³ The *New Englander*, for July 1877 (Vol. XXXVI, pp. 445 *et seq.*).

more direct and far-reaching part in the establishment of schools than the colonists had been familiar with in the mother country.

The first consideration in the establishment of a school of public character was the provision of a suitable endowment. This took the form ordinarily of a gift of lands or the assignment of the income from specified imposts. The charters of regularly incorporated schools provided boards of trustees for the administration of this endowment, made up for the most part of laymen. And both societies and individuals in some instances contributed largely to the funds for permanent endowment.

As we approach the time of the Revolution we find the grammar schools more and more falling into a decline. During the war, and in the years of great depression which immediately succeeded, they continued to languish.

The Rev. W. Winterbotham has this to say in 1796 of the schools of New Hampshire:

Several instances occur in the public records, as far back as the year 1722, just at the beginning of an Indian war, that the frontier towns petitioned the assembly for a special act to exempt them from the obligation to maintain a grammar school during the war. The indulgence was granted them, but only on this condition, "that they should keep a school for reading, writing, and arithmetic;" to which all towns of fifty families were obliged. In latter times the conduct of the same towns has been very different. During the late war with Britain, not only those, but many other towns, large and opulent, and far removed from any danger by the enemy, were for a great part of the time desitute of any public schools, not only without applying to the legislature for permission, but contrary to the express requirements of law, and notwithstanding courts of justice were frequently holden, and grand jurors solemnly sworn and charged to present all breaches of law, and the want of schools in particular.¹

Mr. Martin has enumerated several reasons for the decay of these schools in Massachusetts: The district system had brought about a disintegration of the towns. Men's thoughts were dominated by actual and prospective success in the pursuit of material advantages, and so turned away from the pursuit of learning. The ministers were less influential than formerly. The coldness

¹See BARNARD'S *Am. Jour. Ed.*, Vol. XXIV, p. 137.

of regularly educated ministers was brought into contrast with the religious zeal of itinerant preachers, many of whom were comparatively illiterate. In the period just following the Revolution the general poverty was unfavorable to education, as was the material prosperity of an earlier and a later period.¹ These reasons may, for the most part, be carried over to other states.

In the meantime there was growing up a new sort of institution for secondary education, which was destined to exercise a far-reaching influence upon American education. This was the academy; and to the history of its development we must now devote our attention.

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¹ *The Evolution of the Massachusetts Public School System*, Lecture III.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE POWERS OF A PUPIL^{*}

Resolved, "That, in the opinion of this association, in the secondary schools and in the colleges as far as the end of the sophomore year, the foremost object of effort should be the development of the various powers of the pupil rather than the supply of information."

The very statement of this question confines the discussion to one of two lines: first, to that of the fortunate but small class of pupils who are preparing for college and who succeed in entering it; second, to that of all classes of pupils in the secondary schools and colleges, by the acceptance of the theory "that every subject that is taught at all should be taught the same way and to the same extent to all pupils whatever be their destination."

We all realize that it is a small percentage of the high school pupils who enter college. These pupils must recite with the larger number, for it is only in the large schools that the preparatory pupils can be kept in separate classes. The instructor, therefore, must devote most of his time to these pupils who are finishing their school days; his thought and discussion must be for them, and I thoroughly believe that his very best thought and effort should be for them. The public secondary schools are not primarily for the preparation of students for colleges.

I will not follow this line farther for I agree to the second statement, that all pupils in the same subject should be taught alike. Professor Butler of the Waltham, Mass., high school, writes an article in the December *Educational Review* to prove the opposite of this. He says that the desirability of such uniformity of treatment may be seriously questioned. "Second, if such treatment were desirable, it would be uneconomical and utterly impossible." "How can a teacher teach a subject to the same extent to every pupil?" he adds. We may say that the teacher may teach to the same extent but it may not be received, nay, will not be received, to the same extent by the different

* This article and "High School Programme without Greek" are preprinted from the Proceedings of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools at the meeting held in Chicago, February 12, 13, 1896.

pupils. Each mind will receive it according to its own condition and will act upon it from its own point of view. The rainbow will appear different to each pupil inasmuch as he occupies a different position. For successful work and for a hopeful outcome each case must be diagnosed before the proper remedies can be administered. But it is no harder to diagnose the condition of the non-college pupil than of the college pupil, nor is there a greater difference between the conditions of the two classes than between the individuals of each. Again, in his summing up, he says of the non-preparatory pupils: "Their work is spread over a wider range of subjects—they lack the source of interest" (the preparation for a higher school), "and they are of less natural ability." Why should their work be thus scattered? Why should they, if of less natural ability, range over a wider field? In this very condition is a weakness and a source of that lack of interest attributed to the class. They should not have more but they may have different subjects. They are fitting for life more quickly by just the length of a college course than the college pupils and should have all the interest and inspiration pertaining to such a condition. They certainly will have if they are not "fed on cold victuals."

I believe that a like treatment is the only possible and economical way of treatment, especially in the smaller schools. Moreover, this is as it should be, it is right, pedagogically right. What is the scope of education? "An adjustment of ourselves to our environments." There should be such a training that one may ever be the master of his situation; that he may control his circumstances under all conditions; that he may be in perfect harmony with all that is good and true, but superior in strength to all that is not. As the animal must learn to walk, so must he, the man, learn to live. Some one has said that Plato identifies life and philosophy, but that his philosophy meant education, and therefore that life and education are identical. It would seem to me that education and right living are the same. Whatever, therefore, as far as it goes, best fits for life, best fits for college, which should still better fit for life. If what we have said be true, it follows that the foremost object of effort should be the development of the various powers of the pupil whatever be his destination.

I do not see why the development of powers is at all antagonistic to the second part of the question, "rather than the supply of information." Is there not a harmony between them? Does not the latter lead to the former? The early years of a child's life are spent almost

entirely in gaining information. He very soon learns his limitations physically, his lack of power. He is not likely to put his hand into the fire twice. He puts forth every effort to avoid certain dangers or to overcome them; to conquer his physical surroundings. He grows strong, he acquires physical power but only acquires it by action, and action based upon information received through some of his senses. One might as well advise the athlete to exercise in order to develop his muscular powers without eating and without breathing the air, both of which are necessary for furnishing the material for the strength which he desires. True, the dyspeptic may have eaten too much but he would not be advised to cease eating and to develop his muscles. True, too, the eating, or the gaining of information, is not simply for the momentary pleasure derived therefrom, but it is the means that lead, through proper uses, to strength, to power, to life, to education. If then this question means that information is not the end but that education is, education rather than instruction, it receives my hearty approval.

This is, no doubt, the accepted theory and course of action of all practical educators. Dr. White in his talks, on pedagogy says: "The question whether knowledge or mental power should be made the leading aim of teaching often arises. It is not easy to see how these two results can well be put in contrast, if power be limited to the capacity to acquire knowledge, since the power to know can be developed only by knowing. In all training in the acquiring of knowledge the result is knowledge as well as increased power." Again, in speaking of the comparative value of knowledge and mental power as a result of school training, he says: "It is clear that the developing of power should be the leading aim of teaching. Knowledge is necessary to enlighten and guide in all human effort, but mental power gives acumen, grasp, strength, poise, inspiration, and these are winners of success."

In the report of the Massachusetts Board of Education for 1878 occurs the following statement: "Mental training is the only end that can be attained in school which may be known as a good in itself. But this end cannot be secured without the other two—knowledge and a good method of thinking—and yet these two are to be held as subordinate."

A French writer of note says: "If the care of the master and the efforts of the pupil do not result in developing, extending, elevating and

strengthening the faculties, if they are limited to providing the mind with certain knowledges and to storing them away there without adding to its breadth, its power and its natural activity, education will not have taken place."

From these writers, and from many others, I gather this, that they also believe what I think we all really believe, that it is mental power that we are after; that it comes through knowledge or information applied, but that the act of acquiring is more important than what is acquired. You all remember that sentiment, "If truth were a bird and I held it captive, I would open my hand and let it fly away that I might again pursue and capture it."

I would have examinations, for I believe in examinations, right in this line: a test of power rather than a test of the amount of information. It is hardly expected that the identical problems in algebra that have been given in class will be given in an examination. Why should the same proposition in geometry, the same selection in Latin or Greek, that has been learned in class, be given for a test of ability.

Some time ago a college official asked me concerning the qualifications of a friend who was seeking a place in the college. "How much Latin has he read?" was asked. I did not know, but I did know and said, "That is not the requisite, but how much *can* he read?"

From some college certificates of admission now lying before me, I should judge that these colleges do not agree with me in this statement; in fact, that they would place amount of information before power. Following the lists of subjects taken are five columns headed as follows: "Text-book," "Amount in pages," "Work outside of text-book,—as complete and definite a statement as possible," "Time given in hours," "Date of examination." There are three pages to be filled with such material as this and not one word called for as to the ability of the pupil.

I take it that if a professor in Latin favored Allen and Greenough's text of Cicero, and the pupil had used that of Professor Kelsey, he might not be admitted! It is not a question of Cicero's text. Again, if it had taken the pupil two years to read the required amount in Cicero he would have a much better prospect of being admitted than the boy who had read that amount in six months, and who could read the author at sight.

In a note this advice is given, "In all doubtful cases throw the responsibility on the college." There is where it is all thrown, for the

principal takes no responsibility except to tell the truth as to texts and amount of pages and length of time. If these are not satisfactory the candidate will be rejected! I speak of this because this method seems to me to demand quantitative work rather than qualitative; to demand amount of information rather than power, the result of the development of the various powers.

I would be consistent and urge that the object still beyond the sophomore year, through college, should be the development of power in a special line. After the sophomore year the pupil should be allowed to specialize. At about this time, and not before, is he able to make his elections. The sick man is hardly a competent physician for himself. In the secondary school there should be elective courses, but not elective subjects unless the elections be made by the instructor rather than by the instructed.

The subject does not include the kind of work beyond the sophomore year. The president of this association has very thoroughly discussed this period in his article on the Johns Hopkins, the Harvard, and the Columbia methods.

The second and third parts of the question, "that those studies which are best adapted to develop the faculties of the pupils should have a predominant place in the several curricula; that the studies selected for this purpose should receive more prominent and prolonged attention than they do at present," logically follow the establishment of the first proposition. I do not understand that the question calls for a statement of the studies best adapted for this purpose. It is not proposed therefore to enter upon a discussion of comparative values or of equivalents. In fact, were I to do so, I would be poaching on the grounds of my friend Nightingale and others, who are to discuss the question of this afternoon.

Of all subjects taken, language should stand at the very^{*} first, and our own language be placed as not the least important of the languages. Mathematics, natural sciences, history, and civics, should follow. These lines should receive "prominent and prolonged attention." The natural sciences as taught in our secondary schools today are not what they were a few years ago. Instead of covering the entire range, two, or at most three, are taken; instead of learning an entire text-book on physics, for example, there is a proper amount of text work, with a limited number of experiments. In this inductive work the pupil receives the culture and discipline that comes from that method. He

forms a habit of correct scientific investigation and acquires a power that will enable him to pursue his scientific work even to a farther extent if he so desires.

There has been the same advance in the study of literature. In place of a history of dates, authors and their works, there is a study of the literature proper. Instead of a too wide range of reading a few authors are selected, a thorough study is made of a typical novel, a poem, a drama.

Again, in all subjects where it is possible why should not the work be made practical? I cannot agree with Dr. Patton, if I read him correctly, that subjects lose their power for culture and discipline in so far as they become practical. What difference does it make in the demonstration of a proposition in its developing power that it underlies the work on the field or in an architect's office, unless the view of utility or the practical application is continually held before the student.

Practical knowledge, in order to be useful, in order to be practical, must be thought out and applied, and therefore develops power. Again, there may be knowledge, but unless there be a trained mind very little of anything practical will result from that knowledge or from that mind. Do not then avoid practical subjects in our curricula for fear that the powers of the pupil will not be developed.

In conclusion we would say:

1. That a like treatment should be given to all pupils, whatever be their destination; this discussion should apply to all.
2. That the development of the various powers of the pupil should be the foremost object of effort.
3. That this development of powers is accomplished through the acquiring of information, that is, the second condition is necessary to the first.
4. That examinations should test, and college certificates should recognize this development of the powers.
5. That the proper studies for this end should have a predominant place, and should receive prominent and prolonged attention.

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HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMME WITHOUT GREEK

The last twelve months have been important ones in the history of the colleges and public high schools of the United States. For many years the gap between the college and the English high school has been gradually but surely disappearing, in spite of the conservatism of two or three of the New England colleges. The impetus given to popular education by Horace Mann, the introduction and intelligent use of the epoch-making ideals and methods of Pestalozzi and Herbart, the superior education and pedagogical activity of secondary teachers, and finally the great awakening and coöperation of colleges and schools in associations of a more or less general nature—all these influences have tended to place the people's high schools on the same plane as the classical preparatory school, and to make possible in college and in school an American standard worthy of respect and general adoption.

The establishment of state universities with parallel courses of substantially equal strength, leading to different degrees, and the more recent lead taken by Harvard College in accepting substitutes for the traditional requirements and in proving that there are other and apparently just as good roads to a liberal education and to the A.B. degree as under the old system—these are natural steps in the development of a national educational system as democratic and as free as our system of government. The concerted action of representatives of Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Princeton, Cornell, and the University of Pennsylvania, in New York last February, was a tacit acknowledgment by the great, conservative colleges that the people's schools were entitled to a reasonable, uniform system of requirements for admission. Full consideration was given to the modern subjects, French, German, and history, but the sciences are entirely ignored. The decision to accept any two histories, chosen from the great nations, Greece, Rome, England, and the United States, gave definiteness very helpful in planning the best programme for the secondary school. Acting under this agreement in regard to subjects and amounts, Cornell University has done away with the degrees of Ph.B.,

B.L., and B.S., and named as primary requirements in all courses—English, physical geography, physiology and hygiene, two histories, plane geometry, and algebra to the progressions. As advanced subjects for admission to the A.B. course, the student may present Greek and Latin, Latin and advanced French or advanced German, or he may omit both ancient languages and present advanced French, advanced German and solid geometry, plane and spherical trigonometry. This plan places the English high school, the classical high school and the college preparatory school on substantially the same plane, and enables any boy or girl graduated from any good secondary school to secure a liberal education and an A.B. degree. If Cornell should go one step further and allow an option in biological science, add one physical science, chemistry or physics, and drop spherical trigonometry, for which there seems to be no warrant, either pedagogical or utilitarian, the schedule maker would have an easy task in developing a standard course which would give the student a well-rounded, symmetrical development at whatever point he might leave the school. In Germany the educational tide is running strongly in the direction of emphasizing the practical affairs of life and the training the citizen rather than the specialist during the years corresponding to our secondary period. The time has gone by in Germany and in America when difficult studies are kept in the secondary programme merely because they are difficult. Every study today must furnish the student more than mere mental gymnastics. The people's schools and the nation's needs must be kept constantly in view.

From Michigan to California the articulation, so much desired by the East, came naturally from the happy union of the New England common school and Jefferson's conception of a state university. In these states it is substantially true that every child is born with an unbroken educational inheritance, beginning with the kindergarten and extending through the graduate departments of the university. This connection may be made just as close between every secondary school and every college, if we can agree on a standard programme that embodies the best that modern pedagogy can give us for children of the secondary age, regardless of future specializing; and if the college will all accept this course as adequate preparation for its higher culture work and its professional training. The Committee of Ten and the Committee of Fifteen have given wide circulation to what

may be regarded as the most authoritative decisions of American pedagogy. The ninety-eight teachers connected with the Committee of Ten were unanimous in their decision that "every subject in the secondary curriculum should be taught in the same way and to the same extent to every pupil, regardless of his destination or the length of his school course." The highest pedagogical authorities, the taxpayer and the schedule maker for the secondary school, all unite in this demand. The colleges are gradually adapting their requirements to the development of the highest culture in all departments of our national life. In the educational meetings of the Eastern and Middle States during the last year, college men of the highest authority have almost universally acknowledged that "in any properly organized scheme of education, higher courses must adjust themselves to lower, to the end that interruption at any point will occasion the least possible waste." In planning the best course for the development of the student we must consider the five sides of a child's nature and see that the five culture groups are properly coördinated.

HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMME WITHOUT GREEK, DISCUSSED AT THE MEETING
OF THE NEW ENGLAND ASSOCIATION, OCTOBER 10, 1896.

YEAR I.—Latin or modern language, (5); English, (3); history, (2); algebra, (4); drawing or physical geography, (4); physical training [two half-periods] (1); vocal music, (1). Total 20.

YEAR II.—Latin or modern language [French or German], (4); second foreign language [German or French], (3); English, (3); history, (2); geometry, (3); botany or zoölogy, (3); physical training [two half-periods], (1); vocal music, (1). Total 20.

YEAR III.—Latin or modern language [French or German], (4); second foreign language [German or French], (3); English, (2); history, (2); mathematics [elementary algebra and plane geometry], (4); physics or chemistry, (3); physical training [two half-periods], (1); vocal music, (1). Total 20.

YEAR IV.—Latin or modern language [French or German], (6); second foreign language [German or French], (3); English, (3); history and civil government, (3); physics continued, or chemistry continued, or astronomy, or anatomy, physiology and hygiene, or advanced mathematics, (3); physical training [2 half-periods], (1); vocal music, (1). Total 20.

SUMMARY.—Latin or modern language, (19); second foreign language, (9); English, (11); history and civil government; (9); mathematics: algebra [6 or $7\frac{1}{2}$] plane geometry [5], plane trigonometry or solid geometry [$1\frac{1}{2}$ or 0] (11, 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ or 14); science, (9 or 13).

ABSOLUTE REQUIREMENTS.—Latin or modern language, (19); English, (11); history, (9); mathematics [without solid geometry], (11); science, (9).

HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMME WITH GREEK, PRESENTED AT THE MEETING
OF THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION, FEBRUARY 12, 1897.

YEAR I.—Latin or modern language [French], (5); English [essay and library work one period], (3); history, Greek and Roman [library work one period], (4); algebra to quadratics, (4); physical geography, (3); drawing, (1). Total 20.

YEAR II.—Latin or modern language [French], (5); Greek or modern language [German] or history, (3); English [essay and library work one period] (3); mathematics: plane geometry [with easy originals] (3), algebra [through progressions] (2); botany or zoölogy or biology, (3); drawing, (1). Total 20.

YEAR III.—Latin or modern language [French], (5); Greek or modern language [German] or [English history three periods and Science three periods], (5); English, (2); mathematics: solid geometry two periods, plane geometry [originals] one period, elementary algebra [reviewed] one period, (4); physics or chemistry, (3); drawing, (1). Total 20.

YEAR IV.—Latin or modern language, (5); Greek or modern language or plane trigonometry and advanced algebra (4); English, (3); American history and civil government, (3); advanced physics or advanced chemistry or other science, (3); reviews, (2). Total 20.

SUMMARY.—Latin or modern language, (20); English, (11); Greek or modern language (12); history and civil government, (7, 10, or 13); mathematics: algebra [7 or 9], plane and solid geometry [6], trigonometry [2], (13, 15, or 17); science, (12 or 15).

ABSOLUTE REQUIREMENTS.—Latin or modern language, (20); English, (11); history [Greek, Roman, and American], (7); mathematics [algebra, plane and solid geometry], (13); science [physical geography, biological science, and physical science], (12).

Without attempting a profound discussion of the educational values, I present as concrete subjects for consideration, first, the programme proposed at the last New England meeting as a course giving enlargement of options in admission requirements, and forming a closer connection between colleges and the non-classical high schools, and by its side a programme developed from Table IV, Committee of Ten report, tested by two year's experience in a Michigan academy preparing for colleges as widely separated in location and in requirements as Yale in the extreme East and Stanford in the far West. The

discussion of the first programme presented by Dr. Tetlow is reported in the December SCHOOL REVIEW and is worthy of careful consideration. The members of the association commended the programme and many were in favor of its immediate adoption. A resolution was passed favoring "an enlargement of options in admission requirements with special reference to a closer connection between the colleges and non-classical high schools." The second programme aims to secure still greater options and to effect a closer union between the colleges and the secondary schools. Does this programme conform to the *criteria* of the Committee of Fifteen in securing psychological symmetry or training of the whole mind? In my opinion it does. Algebra, geometry, chemistry, physics, and astronomy, following in regular order, give the student command of nature in its quantitative aspect. Physical geography, botany or zoölogy, and physiology present a clear view of animal and vegetable life as related to inorganic matter. English, and, to a limited extent, the foreign languages, develop the literary or art side. Drawing falls naturally in this group as well as among the mathematical studies. These literary subjects reveal man as master of organic and inorganic nature—man in society, in the state, and in the church. The grammatical group embraces some of English and the greater part of foreign languages, as taught in secondary schools. Here the sign is studied as the manifestation of the thought, and the thoughts are classified. Orthography, etymology, and syntax lead to logic and psychology. These studies not only train the student to speak and write correctly, but, in the words of Dr. Harris, "open the windows of the mind toward the logical, philological, or psychological structure of human thought and action." The fifth group of related studies contains the histories of Greece, Rome, England, and America, with a possibility of mediaeval and modern history in the second year of the course. These subjects lead to a knowledge of sociology and politics, presenting to the student the wisdom of the past. These five groups need different treatment, and develop different parts of the student's nature. The traditional course of Greek, Latin, and mathematics developed the boy and girl strongly in two directions, but almost totally disregarded the other three.

Students dropping out of this course at the end of the first year would have valuable training in English and in one foreign language, a fair knowledge of algebra, an inspiring view of Greek history, the type and interpreter of all subsequent histories, a good introduction

to the study of Roman history, and lastly, through the study of modernized physical geography, an awakening sense of his relation to organic and inorganic nature, his companions and instruments in all the activities of life. Dropping from the course at the end of the second or subsequent years, he will find himself possessed of greater power and of more valuable information. If he finishes the course, he has at least valuable training in English (11 p.), Latin or modern language (20 p.), mathematics (13 p.), history (7 p.), science (12 p.), and in other subjects (17 p.), if the full eighty periods are taken. Can there be any doubt that this course will turn out a well-trained, symmetrical student, capable of doing full justice to the A. B. course, as well as to the engineering and other professional courses of any college?

This course may be criticised as requiring too many prepared recitations for the student. I am convinced that unprepared recitations may be allowed in some subjects without loss to the student. In the first year one hour of English and one of history may be spent in the library, learning the use of books and actually using them in a scientific manner. If the student is to be the "heir of all ages" he must know how to find and enjoy his inheritance. With two thousand volumes arranged according to the Dewey system, and provided with a dictionary card catalogue, a school library is a great factor in educational work. One period of physical geography may be devoted to talks and experiments by an enthusiastic teacher, thus giving greater love of nature and a deeper insight into nature than would result from a prepared recitation. In Latin and modern language work an unprepared lesson may be employed in one or more years, if used with the pedagogic skill described by Mr. Burgess in an admirable article on unprepared recitations in the *SCHOOL REVIEW* of January 1896. In our experiment with this programme the class in Cicero last year did the required work with more than usual success, using one period for unprepared work. The teacher gives inspiration and direction to the student in a way that results in scholarship and power, just what the student most needs, especially in the first year of the high school. While I would not offend the National Philological Association by advocating a reduction in the time given to Latin preparation, I cannot claim that the secondary student receives a symmetrical development when more than one-fourth of his prepared recitations are Latin, and more than one-half are language work. For this reason it seems pedagogically sound to employ unprepared recitations in Latin when

necessary in order to give the student a reasonable amount of history or science. Beginning Latin in the eighth grade may solve the problem to the satisfaction of all. One period per week in plane geometry, and one in review algebra, may profitably be used as laboratory hours, enforcing the lessons already learned and requiring every student to solve difficult originals under the eye of an inspiring teacher. Hours spent in this work have seemed to me most fruitful in producing stronger scholarship and better methods of study. Thus the programme may be brought down to an average of seventeen prepared lessons per week if local conditions demand it. Recent statistics show that the average number of prepared recitations per week in the Michigan high schools is about nineteen, while only 10 per cent. have as low as seventeen.

This programme gives three and four hours per week to several subjects. By practical experience in schedule making I find no great difficulty in avoiding conflicts for the student. None would occur in a closely graded school. The complicated time schedule of the student, caused by daily variations, seems to offer objections, but in practice no greater inconvenience is experienced than in similar allotment of time in college. The benefits arising from the symmetrical development of the student greatly overbalance the slight inconvenience. In Germany it is acknowledged by pedagogical experts that the system of three periods per week often creates more interest in the recitations, and produces greater permanent results than five periods per week for a shorter time. All recent programmes of German schools give evidence of this fact. While a student may forget more and be obliged to review back lessons more frequently, I am convinced that when he masters the subject he will remember it longer than he would with greater concentration and a shorter course. The student must have time to absorb and assimilate his subject in its breadth and depth.

As substitutes for Greek or a modern language, mediæval and modern history may be taught in the second year, English history and a science (possibly chemistry) in the third year, and plane trigonometry and advanced algebra in the last year,—a fair representation of history, science, and mathematics. Whether or not this is a fair equivalent or a profitable substitute for Greek depends largely on the excellence of the teaching of these subjects. The advanced mathematics are harder than Greek, and result in three times as many

failures for college admission, as is shown by President Eliot's last report.

Fifteen periods of French, and twelve of German, should prepare for the advanced requirements of any college. This leaves time for advanced mathematics in place of the other language the fourth year. The twelve periods of Greek will satisfy all but the most tenacious of the conservative classical colleges. Three books of Homer can easily be added to attic Greek in this time. Solid geometry is a required study. The West could not give up this subject, and the East is gradually coming to the same conclusion. Physics or chemistry, three periods per week for two years, is required. This is the German plan. If the first year's work is given to the simpler and more practical parts of the subject, the German educator, as well as Dr. Harris, will doubtless be satisfied, as this will give to the many who leave the school before the senior year most useful training in a physical science. The three periods per week in the fourth year will give Harvard's advanced requirement in physics.

As far as I can judge, this programme will, with only slight modification, prepare for the most exacting colleges, provided only that they allow a knowledge of the subject, and not specified texts, to determine the fitness of the candidate. If this association will agree on this, or on some better standard programme, characterized by liberal options, fitted for every good secondary school in the North Central States,—a course that will give the student symmetrical training at every stage of his growth,—the time will surely come, and come quickly, when every college will welcome to its highest culture course the graduates of the American secondary school, and the standard of the college and the school will be advanced together in a closely articulated national system.

W. H. BUTTS

ORCHARD LAKE, MICH.

ASSOCIATIONS NOW ENGAGED IN STUDYING THE SUBJECT OF COLLEGE
ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS.¹

By J. REMSEN BISHOP, of the N. E. A. Committee.

I Name of Association	II Name of Secretary	III Address of Secretary	IV Another member to address in case the secre- tary does not respond	V Address of IV	VI State or Section Repre- sented
New England Asso. of Colleges and Preparatory Sch's Massachusetts Classical and High Sch'l Teachers' Assn. Commission of Colleges in New England on Admissions Examinations. ² Assn. of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland Schoolmasters' Assn. of New York and Vicinity. League of Parents and Teachers.	Ray Greene Huling Wm. F. Bradbury. Prof. W. C. Poland Prof. J. Q. Adams T. C. Mitchell. Miss L. A. Bangs.	191 Trowbridge St., Cambridge, Mass. Cambridge Latin Sch., Cambridge, Mass. Brown University, Providence, R. I. University of Pa., Philadelphia, Pa. Columbia Univ., N. Y. 43 W. 47th st., N. Y.	Chas. W. Parmenter S. T. Dutton.	Boston, Mass. Brookline, Mass.	N. England states. N. England states. Middle states. N. Y. and vicinity. New York City.
Univ. and H. School Conference of Colorado, State Teachers' Association. ² Southern College Association Tennessee Association of Colleges and Schools. High School Section, Ohio State Teachers' Association College and Normal Section of North Dakota Educational Association.	James E. Russell. A. B. Copeland. J. H. Kirkland. J. L. Lampson. Mrs. Perkey. Prof. L. S. Bottendorf.	Boulder, Colo. Greeley, Colo. Nashville, Tenn. Nashville, Tenn. Defiance, Ohio. Fargo, North Dakota.	James H. Baker. C. L. Loos. W. Merrifield.	Boulder, Colo. Dayton, Ohio. Grand Forks, N. D.	Colorado. Southern states. Tennessee. Ohio. North Dakota.

ASSOCIATIONS NOW ENGAGED IN STUDYING THE SUBJECT OF COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS.—*Conn.*

Nebraska Asso. of Superintendents and Principals . . .	Mrs. Nora H. [Lemon	Lothrop School, Omaha, Neb.	W. S. Reese	Vork, Neb.	Nebraska.
College Sec. of State Teachers' Association	Prof. W. A. Clark . .	Peru, Neb.	Dan Miller	Fremont, Neb.	" "
* Department of Colleges and High Schools, S. Dakota Educational Association	A. H. Avery	Woonsocket, S. Dak.	South Dakota.
* Committee of Ten of South Dakota, Educational Association on College Requirements	Clerk M. Young	Vermillion, S. Dak.	H. E. Finch	Elk Point, S. Dak.	South Dakota.
Southern Educational Assn.	Geo. B. Cook	Hot Springs, Ark.	R. B. Fulton	University, Miss.	Southern states.
Committee appointed by So. E. A. to consider relations of Colleges and Sec. Sch's Committee on High School Course	R. B. Fulton	University, Miss.	" "
Louisiana Association of Latin Teachers	H. C. Cutting	Carson, Nev.	Nevada.
North Central States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools	Mrs. R. M. Lusher . .	1415 Delachaise St., New Orleans, La.	Louisiana.
Michigan Schoolmasters Club	(President) J. H. Canfield	Columbia, Ohio	F. L. Bliss	Detroit, Mich.	North Central states. Michigan.
* Committee of University Presidents to unify requirements	E. C. Warner	Saginaw, Mich.	" "
Department of Higher Education	Mark W. Harrington	Seattle, Washington	Washington.
Department of the Montana State Teachers' Association	Delia Dorchester	Helena, Mont.	James Reid	Bozeman, Mont.	Montana.

¹The compiler of this table wishes to thank the many persons who have kindly aided him in securing the necessary data.

² The relation of colleges and secondary schools is the chief topic under consideration.

TOPICS FOR SUPPLEMENTARY READING AND DISCUSSION IN UNITED STATES HISTORY

THE following list of topics was prepared with the object of introducing pupils to the dynamics of history; or to speak more accurately, it grew from day to day by the noting down of such questions of a general nature as arose in the consideration of American history with reference to cause and effect. For convenience, they are loosely grouped under ten heads. Of course in a list of this kind, considerable repetition is not only unavoidable but even desirable.

The conditions assumed are: first, that the pupils belong to an advanced grade and bring to the work a fair knowledge of common historical facts; secondly, that they have access to a few books in which to read up on the questions started in class.

The method which has proved most successful is briefly as follows:

1. To require an accurate recitation of the facts, not slighting even such much berated things as battles and dates.
2. To demand an explanation of the facts. Here, of course, the pupils are immediately at sea and numerous absurd theories are started, but by dint of plying them with questions, calling attention to resemblances and differences in the history of other times and countries, they can usually be made to think the matter out for themselves.
3. After this has been done with some measure of success, the question is tersely formulated and given to the class or to certain pupils for further investigation in reference books: a connected report being called for at some future session, usually the next recitation.
4. Finally, the whole matter is briefly reviewed and summed up in an informal lecture. The pupils are thereafter held responsible for it on all occasions, including examinations.

I. THE NATIVE RACES AND CIVILIZATION

1. Conditions necessary for passage without foreign instructions (1) from hunting and fishing to pastoral existence; (2) from hunting and fishing to agricultural; (3) from agricultural to manufacturing and commercial.

2. Conditions of military efficiency; how affected by each of the transitions above named? Reasons for usual weakness of peoples in first stages of agriculture. Illustrate from ancient American and general history, *e.g.*, Apaches and Pueblo Indians, Germans, and Romans, etc. Part which the Six Nations played in American history. Economic reasons for their military power and superiority to all other natives. Parallel from early German history (*Cæsar, de bello Gallico*, IV, 1-3).

3. Political organization corresponding to (1) hunting and fishing life, (2) pastoral, (3) agricultural, (4) manufacturing and commercial. Reasons for it in each case.

4. Conditions which produce feudalism: (1) The existence of an extensive state, usually the result of conquest; (2) the existence of a natural, as opposed to a money, economy—this being found as a rule in the purely agricultural stage.

5. Family—clan—tribe: their development, and relation to state in different stages thereof. Origin of township and county.

6. The two elements in civilization: (1) knowledge of the useful arts; (2) ripening of intellect and especially of self-control. Fundamental character of the latter, and length of time demanded for its acquisition. The evil results of forced and premature civilization, *e.g.*, Celts, Slavs, American Indians, etc. Connection of the predominant Indian blood in Spanish America with the chronic state of revolution there existing.

7. Conditions productive of despotic government: (1) control of common resources; (2) union of spiritual and temporal powers. *Cf.* the Natchez, Aztecs, Peruvians, and the great despotisms of the old world.

8. Right of conquest, illustrated in the seizure of America by whites, as based on superior civilization. Sense in which might is right, because in the long run only right is might. Meaning of "Die Weltgeschichte ist das Weltgericht." Sense in which the mediæval conception of battle as a "judgment of God" may be justified.

II. DISCOVERY AND COLONIZATION

9. Reasons why the Norse discovery of America was of so little importance and the Spanish of so much. Fundamental changes in industry and society which had taken place in Europe in the meantime.

10. Difference in motives and consequent difference in mode of

settlement of Spanish, English, and French. Explanation of present contrast between Spanish, English, and French America as regards purity of blood and character of civilization.

11. Reasons for limits of Spanish conquests: (1) in nature of country, (2) in condition of inhabitants and their resulting military efficiency, Apaches and Araucanians.

12. Economic reasons for decline of Spanish power in Europe and America.

13. Fundamental reasons, economic and political, for defeat of French in America. The French-Indian massacres as indicating an approximation to the intellectual level of barbarians as regards the decisive factors in warfare.

14. Commercial and military importance of rivers before the invention of railroads.

III. CHARACTER OF THE ENGLISH COLONIES

15. Causes which produced democracy in New England and aristocracy in Virginia and South Carolina: (1) Climate and soil, causing a difference in crops; (2) waterways; (3) homogeneity of population in North; heterogeneity, in South.

16. Winthrop and Hooker as representatives of the two antagonistic tendencies of Calvinism

17. Religious toleration: its history as a compromise forced by necessity on reluctant peoples and parties. Reasons for this is the religious character of the state in previous ages.

18. The New England "Common" and the ancient Folkland.

19. Industrial cause of the social and political contrast between North and South Carolina, and between the East and the West in South Carolina. Political consequence in each case, traced through the Civil War. Connection with the present division with the democratic party in South Carolina.

20. Causes of prevalence of county system in the South and township system in New England.

IV. THE REVOLUTION

21. Pre-revolutionary conception in Europe of a colony, its nature and use. Apparent economic foundation of this conception in law of decreasing returns.

22. Reasons why Pitt's friendship for the colonies brought with it the King's enmity.
23. The relative proportion of whigs and tories in the several colonies and causes of the difference. Consider (1) race, (2) industries, (3) history, *e. g.*, Andros and Berkeley.
24. The two British plans of campaign in the revolution and military reasons for the failure of each. How would the existence of railroads have altered the situation?

V. THE CONSTITUTION

25. Defects of the Articles of Confederation and provisions in the Federal Constitution which can be traced to experience of these defects.
26. Conditions which had fostered particularism in the Colonies. Connection of this with the party of strict construction.
27. The revolutionary action of the Constitutional Convention in providing that the assent of the nine states should be sufficient for the adoption of the new constitution.
28. Distinctive characteristics of the Federal state, as contrasted on the one hand with the centralized simple state, on the other hand with the league of states.
29. Steam and electricity as agents in political consolidation.
30. In what sense may the character of the government, central, and local, be reckoned as a factor in industrial progress?
31. What novel factors are there in the modern experiment of self-government which were not present in the ancient? If this experiment fails, to what forces or tendencies will its failure be due? Conditions necessary for the maintenance of a republic.

VI. THE SLAVE POWER

32. The natural and economic conditions necessary for the success of slavery, as regards, (1) nature of the soil; (2) size of estates; (3) crops for which there is a demand; (4) markets for sale of produce and purchase of supplies and manufactured articles; (5) abundance of fresh land. Explanation of the land hunger of the South which dominated American politics down to the Civil War.
33. The three districts in which the slave system was most fully developed, with reasons. The effect in those districts as regards: (1)

the organization of society; (2) the political influence of those districts as compared with other parts of the South.

34. Reasons for the transference of political leadership in the South from the Atlantic coast to the Gulf States.

35. The comparative growth of North and South in wealth and population between 1790 and 1860. Reasons for the disparity. Explanation of the fact that before the war the planters were rich but the South was poor; since the war the planters are often poor, but the South has increased rapidly in wealth.

36. The two ways in which individual wealth may be acquired, and the effect of each on society as a whole: (1) by earning it; (2) by securing it from others without rendering any return, or any adequate return. Analysis of the slave system, showing its identity with systematic brigandage.

37. Reasons why the doctrine of state sovereignty was abandoned at the North but cherished at the South. Its practical effects in causing general obedience on the part of the citizens, when the states actually seceded, to their ordinances of secession.

38. The necessary effect of the destruction of the slave system: (1) on the organization of society; (2) on the distribution of political power among the several classes of whites in the South. Connection of the present populist party in the South with the abolition of slavery. What effect did the reconstruction policy of Congress have on this political readjustment?

39. Reasons why the democratic party has abandoned strict construction, advocating measures implying an enormous extension of governmental power, while the republican party is shifting in the direction of strict construction,

VII. THE SPOILS SYSTEM

40. Similarity of the spoils system to feudalism (1) in the use of public funds (income from lands or office) to secure and reward personal services; (2) in the building up of a *de facto* government, based on private relations among individuals, behind the *de jure* government; (3) in the choice of men for office without regard to their qualifications to discharge its duties; (4) in the consequent multiplication of offices, through the appointment of deputies to perform the duties which the chief is incapable of performing; and (5) in the creation of sinecures, still further to augment the patronage at the disposal of the chief.

41. Psychological reasons for the support which the spoils system finds in the mass of the people. Reasons why the confusion of public good with private interests is easier in a democracy than elsewhere.

VIII. INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

42. Origin and meaning of Monroe Doctrine. In view of the constitutional reforms in Europe since 1823, and the political anarchy in Spanish America, does insistence on it now favor or retard the civilization of those regions? If the latter, may any considerations of economic and political self-interest be adduced in extenuation or justification of it?

43. Has war ever advanced civilization? If so, could anything else have taken its place? Can arbitration ever be applied where the existence of a nation or a peculiar civilization is at stake?

44. Detailed analysis showing in what sense and to what extent commercial rivalry is the substance without the name of war.

45. In case of commerce between two nations, one chiefly manufacturing and commercial, the other agricultural, what does the former gain (and lose) by buying provisions and raw materials abroad? What does the other gain by buying manufactured articles abroad, supposing it to be unfitted for making them at home? Does it gain, or lose, or neither, if it buys instead of manufacturing them, notwithstanding it is fitted to make them? Explanation of fact that England today supports a population many times greater than in any previous century. Connection with law of decreasing returns.

IX. PANICS

46. An account of the four great panics in America, finding by analysis: (1) the antecedent conditions common to all; (2) the manner in which these conditions resulted from waste of labor and capital; (3) the reasons why the process of recovery is of necessity slow.

X. INDUSTRIAL CHANGES

47. Prevailing occupations in 1789; changes since then. Connection of these changes with (1) machinery; (2) the growth of cities; (3) the growth of population in general throughout the western world. Explanation of growth of New York and Chicago.

48. Economic reasons for the new grouping of parties in the decade 1820-1830.

49. Nature of a monopoly. By which of the two methods mentioned above (No. 36) does it acquire wealth: (1) if the price is advanced to the maximum revenue limit; and (2) if the price is reduced as rapidly as the economics in production allow?

50. Comparison between the slave-labor system and the trust system as respects (1) the production of wealth; (2) the distribution of wealth among the several classes; (3) the existence of a strong middle class.

51. Connection of railroad and telegraph with growth of monopolies and trusts. Is it probable that legislation will avail, in the long run, to check this tendency to concentration of management?

52. If the trust system is carried through, destroying the middle classes, what political effects may be expected to follow?

53. Are there any indications of a tendency in it to raise up a new middle class to replace the classes it destroys?

54. In case the trust system proves to be the logical and unavoidable form for the management of modern industry, what means, if any, can be devised to insure that society as a whole shall share in the benefits of the economies of production which it renders possible?

E. V. ROBINSON

MUSKEGON, MICH.

Feb. 27, 1897

PRELIMINARY PROGRAMME OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

TUESDAY, JULY 3, 3:00 P.M.

Principals' Round Table. Conducted by Principal F. L. Bliss, Detroit High School.

Is it desirable and possible by better correlation of studies and closer articulation between the grammar and high schools to fit students for college at sixteen or seventeen years of age? Sanford A. Hooper, Principal South Side High School, Milwaukee (10 minutes); 20 minutes' general discussion.

What effect has the study of algebra and geometry in the highest grammar grades upon the work done in the high school? W. H. Smiley, Principal High School, Denver, Col. (10 minutes); O. S. Westcott, Principal Chicago North Division High School (10 minutes); 20 minutes' general discussion.

Should the high school principal be given a voice in selecting his assistants? 10 minutes' general discussion.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 7, 2:30 P.M.

Joint meeting of the Department of Higher Education and the Department of Secondary Education. President Joseph Swain, of the University of Indiana, presiding.

Report of the Joint Committee of the Department of Higher Education and the Department of Secondary Education on college entrance requirements. A. F. Nightingale, Superintendent of Chicago High Schools, Chairman.

Discussion:—President J. G. Schurman, Cornell University (20 minutes); Principal Oscar D. Robinson, Albany, N. Y., High School (20 minutes); Professor Nicholas Murray Butler, Columbia University, New York (20 minutes).

Adjournment at 4:30 o'clock followed by brief business session of the Department of Secondary Education.

THURSDAY, JULY 8

Round Table Conferences in Latin, Greek, History, English, The High School as a Social Factor.

Round Table in Latin and Greek. Leader, Albert Leonard, Principal High School, Binghamton, N. Y.

Are not college entrance requirements pitched too high? A. W. Tressler, Superintendent of Schools, Monroe, Mich. (10 minutes); 20 minutes' general discussion.

Is there any better test of power and proficiency in English than a two-fold translation? Wilson Farrand, Associate Master Newark Academy (10 minutes); 20 minutes' general discussion.

It is time for Greek composition to be discontinued in preparatory schools?

Programme of Round Table in history. Leader, C. W. French, Principal Hyde Park High School, Chicago, Ill.

Source study method of teaching history in high schools. Professor H. W. Caldwell, University of Nebraska (15 minutes); 10 minutes' general discussion.

Programme of Round Table in English. Leader, Miss Harriet L. Keeler, High School, Cleveland, Ohio.

Are secondary schools getting the best results from present methods in English and composition? George B. Aiton, State Inspector of High Schools, Minnesota (10 minutes); 20 minutes' general discussion.

The Study of Literature in Secondary Schools. Richard Jones, State Inspector of Literature, New York.

Programme of Round Table, The High School as a Social Factor. Leader, Principal D. S. Sanford, High School, Brookline, Mass.

High School Extension. F. A. Manny, Assistant in Pedagogy, The University of Chicago (10 minutes).

How and How Much should the High School Curriculum be Modified to meet the Special Conditions in Different Communities? Charles C. Ramsay, Principal Fall River (Mass.) High School.

SUMMER STUDY IN 1897

The utilization of the long vacation by teachers in supplementing their professional preparation is one of the most striking and encouraging movements of the day. In accordance with the custom of the **SCHOOL REVIEW** for several years the attractions and opportunities presented by a number of the best known institutions offering summer instruction are here presented to our readers.

THE WINONA SUMMER SCHOOL

The third annual session of the Winona Summer School at Eagle Lake, Ind., will extend through four weeks, beginning July 19. The principal of the school is Professor John M. Coulter, of the University of Chicago.

Instruction is grouped under the following heads: (1) College Department; (2) Department of Methods; (3) Department of Music; (4) Department of Art; (5) Department of Physical Culture. In all of these departments teachers of high reputation have been secured, and every subject will be presented by the most approved method.

The attention of teachers is especially directed to the work in languages, mathematics, and sciences, conducted by the College Department; and also to the various grades of work, from kindergarten to high school, presented by the Department of Methods. In addition to the formal instruction various members of the faculty will occupy the platform of the assembly during the morning hour, presenting in popular form some of the more important problems connected with their subjects. Among these, the principal will give a series of lectures upon prominent biological problems, such as evolution, heredity, contagious diseases, etc.

The great attractions of Eagle Lake (near Warsaw) as a summer resort, the numerous conventions that are to meet there during the season, the lectures and concerts of the assembly programme, all combine to supplement the work of the school in a most profitable way.

For circular containing full information, address: Sol. C. Dickey, When Block, Indianapolis, Ind.

THE AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THE EXTENSION OF UNIVERSITY TEACHING

This society will conduct its fifth summer meeting in the buildings of the University of Pennsylvania, July 6 to 30, 1897. The arrangements for this

session include: Department A, Literature and History; Department B, Psychology, Child Study, and Kindergarten; Department C, Round Table Conferences; Department D, Mathematics; Department E, Latin.

Department A, Mediæval Life and Thought, is in continuation of the corresponding department of the two previous years. In 1895 the subject considered was Greek Life and Thought, and in 1896 Roman Life and Thought. This year the principal aspects of civilization during the Middle Ages will be considered. The period to be covered may be said to date from the fall of the Roman Empire in 476 to the end of the Crusades, about 1300. To cover as well as possible this portion of the world's history, lectures will be delivered on the history, literature, art, philosophy, and religion of Europe in that age. Arrangements have already been completed for a course of five lectures on English History by Professor Cheyney, and four lectures on English Literature by Dr. Child, both of the University of Pennsylvania, and Professor Munro of the University of Pennsylvania will give five lectures on Mediæval Education. It is expected that as many as sixty hours during the four weeks of the meeting will be taken up in lectures in the department. Arrangements are in progress at present for lectures on other phases of mediæval civilization.

In the Department of Psychology, Child Study, and Kindergarten the work is so arranged that students who were in attendance at former summer meetings will be able to work in continuation of previous courses, and there will be courses for newcomers. Dr. Lightner Witmer with a competent corps of assistants will conduct laboratory classes in the psychological laboratories of the University of Pennsylvania, for experimental study, while the theoretical side will be presented in the afternoon lectures. In Child Study a psychological clinic will be held. Professor E. B. Titchener, of Cornell, and Professor Mark Baldwin, of Princeton, have been secured to give courses in this department. Professor Halleck, author of *The Education of the Central Nervous System*, is to give a course of lectures on that topic.

Department C, called "Round-Table Conferences," is a new feature in the summer meetings of the American Society. It is expected that some fifteen specialists will be present. Among others, Professor Davis, of Harvard, is to speak on geography, Professor Hart, of Harvard, on history, Dr. Witmer is to discuss the subject of Psychology in the Normal Schools, and Professor Brumbaugh, of the University of Pennsylvania, will take some subject in the field of pedagogy. Professor Gantvoort is to lecture on Music in Primary Work, and Miss Arnold on Nature Study. Professor Bronson, of Brown University, is to lead a discussion on English Literature, Mr. Edward Everett Hale on Ethics, and Professor Munro on the Use of Sources in the Study of History. Professor Schwatt, director of the Department of Mathematics,

will discuss some of the methods of teaching elementary algebra and geometry.

For fuller information regarding the meeting address Dana C. Munro, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

THE HULL HOUSE SUMMER SCHOOL

The Hull House Summer School at Rockford College, Rockford, Illinois, will open its sixth season on July 5th. The usual outdoor classes in science, botany, and birds, and indoor laboratory classes in chemistry and physics, will continue. A choice in literature classes will be offered, and an effort made to provide a teacher for any approved subject for which a sufficient number of early applications are made. The social aspect of the school is always its distinguishing feature.

The buildings of Rockford College, in which the school holds its sessions, are beautifully situated on the bank of Rock River.

It is not the object of the summer school to make its serious pursuits subordinate to festivity, but the work is not so heavy as to be a burden, and is diversified by dramatics, boating parties, lawn tennis, drives and other forms of recreation.

A charge of three dollars a week covers tuition and board and also includes lodging in the college buildings for ladies. Both men and women are on the faculty, and are admitted as students. For circulars and fuller information, address Hull House, 335 South Halsted street, Chicago.

HARVARD SUMMER SCHOOL

In none of the numerous departments of Harvard University has there been more evidence of advancement during the last ten years than in the Summer School. This school had its origin in some experiments begun in 1868, and carried on for several years by one of the teaching staff of the University. It was not until 1874 that the corporation became responsible for these courses, and it is in the catalogue of that year that the Summer School is first mentioned. In the beginning, chemistry and botany alone were offered, but in 1875 a course in geology was added, and these three subjects were taught exclusively until 1887. Since then each year has seen an increase, until the list for 1897 contains the names of thirty-four courses in arts and sciences, besides courses at the Medical School and the Dental School. During the last ten years several courses have been offered for a year or more, but withdrawn through the lack of sufficient support to warrant their being continued. The list now embraces the modern languages, the classics, history and civil government, psychology, pedagogy, mathematics, and the sciences, thus bringing into the service of the Summer School students almost all the laboratory and library resources of the University. Professor Albert Bushnell

Hart will give this year his course in American history, which attracted such attention a few years ago, and Professor William M. Davis will repeat his popular course in physical geography.

With the increase in subjects offered by the University, has come an increase in the number of students, for while in its earlier years the school had an average attendance of from thirty to fifty students, the catalogue for 1895 gives the names of 601, and in 1896 there was a total registration of 637.

Western teachers are peculiarly attracted to the Harvard Summer School, because Cambridge lies in the center of a region wherein occurred some of the most important events in American history, and the majority of these historic points are within a short distance of the college grounds.

THE SUMMER QUARTER OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

The Summer Quarter of The University of Chicago will open July 1, and continue for twelve weeks. The Quarter is divided into two terms of six weeks each, and while many courses run through twelve weeks, there are also many which will be completed during the first term, and others which will begin with the second term, thus accommodating those who cannot remain during the whole of the quarter. As in previous years, the work of the coming summer will be carried on in the same way as that of the other quarters of the university year. The work of the summer is, therefore, not a summer school in the sense in which that term is ordinarily used.

During the coming summer more than one hundred officers of instruction will be in residence, among them a considerable number of specialists from various American and European universities. With a single exception, every department of instruction will be represented. Some idea of the scope of the work may be gained from the statement that about 250 courses are offered, about one-third of which are for graduate students only. The courses are distributed among the various departments as follows: Philosophy 7, pedagogy 10, political economy 5, political science 5, history 13, sociology and anthropology 10, comparative religion 2, Semitic languages and literatures 30, biblical and patristic Greek 5, Sanskrit and Indo-European comparative philology 3, Greek language and literature 13, Latin language and literature 12, Romance languages and literatures 10, Germanic languages and literatures 12, English (literature and rhetoric) 13, biblical literature in English 2, mathematics 13, astronomy 10, physics 8, chemistry 11, geology 6, zoölogy 6, anatomy and histology 3, physiology 5, neurology 1, palæontology 3, and botany 7.

In the Graduate Divinity School six courses are offered in addition to those of the department of Semitic languages and literatures; in the English Theology Seminary six courses in addition to those of the department of biblical literature in English.

Admission to the University for the Summer Quarter is gained on the same terms as during other quarters, and in addition special privileges are extended (1) to students from other colleges and universities who may wish to continue their studies during the summer months, and (2) to teachers who are graduates of approved academies, high schools and normal schools. Such teachers are admitted for the Summer Quarter to departments representing subjects which they have been engaged in teaching, and, to a limited extent, to other departments also. In view of the large attendance of teachers during the Summer Quarter, a considerable number of courses have been arranged especially for them. The large number of graduate courses, many of which are research courses, will afford abundant opportunity for advanced work to those who are prepared for it.

Copies of the Announcements of Courses for the Summer Quarter will be forwarded on application to The Examiner, The University of Chicago.

CHAUTAUQUA

There are few things better known in this country than the Chautauqua System of Education. And yet, whenever one thinks of this wonderful system, with all its interesting and multifarious departments, is it not after all the picture of the summer at Lake Chautauqua that comes first and most prominently before the mind? Chautauqua is a city where municipal functions are extended to include free public instruction and entertainment. Possessing all the usual features of an attractive summer resort it adds to them opportunities for intellectual recreation and mental training that make it entirely unique. The detailed courses of study for the coming summer fill a good sized pamphlet which may be obtained of W. A. Duncan, secretary, Chautauqua, N. Y. The instruction is distributed among the following schools: English Language and Literature; Modern Languages; Classical Languages; Mathematics and Science; Social Sciences; Psychology and Pedagogy; Sacred Literature; Music, Fine Arts, Expression; Physical Education; Practical Arts. In each school the faculty contains the most eminent instructors, drawn in large part from the foremost universities and colleges.

NATIONAL SUMMER SCHOOL, GLENS FALLS, N. Y.

This well-known school has now reached its thirteenth year, in fact which in itself speaks eloquently of the efficiency and attractiveness of the institution. At the National Summer School especial attention is given to the needs of teachers in the primary and grammar grades. Among the instructors for the coming summer the following have national reputations: Dr. Richard G. Boone, Psychology and Pedagogy; Wilbur F. Gordy, Methods in History; Charles F. King, Methods in Geography; and Henry L. Southwick,

Reading and Elocution. Among the special attractions of this school are the following:

It has a faculty composed wholly of experts.

The expense for board and tuition is less than at any other good school.

The various courses provide for the wants of all classes of teachers.

The location is a healthful one, just on the border of the great Adirondack region.

There will be numerous excursions that will not be overcrowded.

There is no section of country so rich in historic associations.

Near by are Lake George, Saratoga, Mt. McGregor, and the Adirondacks, all of world-wide fame.

THE SAUVEUR SUMMER SCHOOL OF LANGUAGES.

We have before us the programme of the Sauveur Summer School of Languages which announces that the school will hold its twenty-second session at Amherst, Mass. This beautiful New England town, situated on an elevation which gives it a commanding view of the Connecticut River valley, and surrounded by mountains, makes a worthy setting for a worthy institution.

The fact that, in spite of the constant whirl of changes which this last quarter of a century has witnessed and the sudden and tremendous extension of summer schools throughout the country, the Sauveur Summer School of Languages, under the inspiring leadership of its principal, Dr. Sauveur, has held its own and, if all goes well, will celebrate its silver wedding with the incoming of the new century, is the best guaranty of its right to exist that the school could have.

No one who has studied under Dr. Sauveur can have failed to feel the uplift of his enthusiastic appreciation of the higher benefits of language-study *per se*, or to have gained a wider outlook into the literary and philological beauties of the individual language studied. But if one is looking for what some might call the more practical advantages of six weeks spent at this Summer School, we can assure them that it is an unexcelled opportunity for acquiring that facility in the use and understanding of the modern languages which is otherwise only to be obtained by residence in the country of the language.

THE MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY

For the benefit of those students who are able to continue their studies through the earlier part of the long vacation, and to give opportunities for professional experience of a kind not otherwise possible, summer schools are held in architecture, in topography, geodesy, and geology, in mining engineering and metallurgy, and in naval architecture. These schools are held

at such points away from Boston as offer special advantages for the execution or examination of professional work. Tuition is free to members of the Institute, and, generally speaking, to such former students as may be disposed to join the classes. Other persons are, in certain cases, admitted upon giving satisfactory evidence of their being properly qualified, and upon payment of a small tuition fee.

In addition to the professional Summer Schools, just spoken of, summer courses are held within the buildings of the Institute in June and July, which are intended for three classes of pupils: First, persons, for example, graduates of colleges, who desire to enter the Institute with advanced standing, and for that purpose may have occasion to make up some of the work of the earlier years; secondly, students of the Institute who desire to anticipate some one or more of the studies of the coming year, whether to lighten their work or to enable them to take other, optional, studies; thirdly, students of the Institute who have been conditioned in some of the studies of the past year, or have failed to complete their studies to their own satisfaction.

The courses thus far held at the Institute during June and July have been in the departments of mathematics, chemistry, biology, physics, modern languages, drawing, and descriptive geometry.

The fee for tuition is, in general, \$25 for each course, with a separate charge for breakage and laboratory supplies in the chemical courses. Full information concerning the courses for the present year may be obtained of H. W. Tyler, Secretary, Mass. Inst. of Technology, Boston, Mass.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, SUMMER SCHOOL JULY 7 TO
AUGUST 18, 1897

During the summer of 1897, courses of instruction will be given by professors and instructors in the University of Michigan as follows:

Greek.—1. Preparatory Greek. 2. The Poetics of Aristotle.

Latin.—1. Preparatory Latin: (a) Latin Prose; (b) Cicero's Orations against Catiline; (c) Vergil's *Aeneid*. 2. Rapid Reading. 3. Introduction to Roman Political Institutions. 4. Historical Proseminary.

French.—1. Beginners' Course. 2. Modern Prose. 3. Classic Drama. 4. Prose composition. 5. Scientific French. 6. History of French Literature

German.—1. Modern Prose. 2. Composition. 3. Classic Drama.

English and Rhetoric.—1. The Teaching of English Literature. 2. American Literature. 3. Anglo-Saxon. 4. Middle English. 5. Paragraph Writing. 6. Prose Composition.

History.—1. General History.

The Science and Art of Teaching.—1. The Fundamental Herbartian Doctrines. 2. The Theory and Practice of Teaching. 3. Unsettled Questions in Political Economy.

Mathematics.—1. Preparatory Geometry. 2. Preparatory Algebra. 3. Trigonometry and Advanced Algebra. 4. Analytical Geometry. 5. Theory of Equations. 6. Elementary Mechanics. 7. Projective Geometry. 8. Theory of Infinite Series. 9. Geometry (teachers' course). 10. Calculus. 11. Differential Equations.

Physics.—1. Preparatory Physics. 2. Teachers' Course. 3. Laboratory Physics.

Chemistry.—1. General Inorganic Chemistry. 2. Laboratory Work in General Inorganic Chemistry. 3. Qualitative Analysis. 4. Beginning Quantitative Analysis. 5. Inorganic Preparations. 6. Organic Chemistry. 7. Organic Preparations. 8. Molecular Weights. 9. Advanced Quantitative Analysis. 10. Organic Analysis. 11. Research Work.

Zoölogy.—1. General Course. 2. The Frog. 3. Teachers' Course.

Botany.—1. Morphology and Physiology of Phanerogams. 2. Algae and Fungi. 3. Vegetable Histology.

Histology.—1. Vertebrate Histology. 2. Histological Technics.

Bacteriology.—Laboratory Work.

Physiological Chemistry.—Laboratory Work, also courses in Philosophy, Political Economy, Engineering, Drawing, and Law.

The fee for a single course of study is \$15; for two courses by the same student \$25; for three courses by the same student \$30. The maximum fee is \$30. The cost of board and rooms will vary from \$3.00 to \$5.00 a week, according to location and manner of living.

For information in regard to the school, address E. A. Lyman, Chairman of the Executive Committee, 31 East Liberty street.

NEW PUBLICATIONS

ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

- The Riverside Literature Series. *The Pilgrim's Progress.* By John Bunyan. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by William Vaughn Moody. $4\frac{1}{2} \times 7$ in.; pp. xxii+195. Price 40 cents. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
- Essay on Burns.* By Thomas Carlyle. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by George R. Noyes. $4\frac{1}{2} \times 7$ in.; pp. xvii+86. Price 25 cents. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
- Macbeth.* By William Shakespeare. From the Riverside Edition by Richard Grant White. With Additional Notes by Helen Gray Cone. $4\frac{1}{2} \times 7$ in.; pp. 110. Price 25 cents. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
- German Household Tales.* By Jacob and Wilhelm Grimm. Told again in English. $4\frac{1}{2} \times 7$ in.; pp. xi+241. Price 40 cents. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
- Longmans' English Classics. Dryden's Palamon and Arcite.* Edited, with Notes and an Introduction, by William Tenny Brewster, A.M. $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$ in.; pp. xxx+105. Price 75 cents. Longmans, Green & Co.
- James Fenimore Cooper's *The Last of the Mohicans.* Edited, with Notes and an Introduction, by Charles F. Richardson, Ph.D. $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$ in.; pp. xix+424. Price 75 cents. Longmans, Green & Co.
- The World and Its People. Book VI Life in Asia.* By Mary Cate Smith. Edited by Larkin Dunton, LL.D. $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$ in.; pp. 328. Silver, Burdette & Co.
- Topics and References in American History, with numerous Search Questions.* By George A. Williams, Ph.D. Revised and Enlarged Edition. 5×7 in.; pp. viii+176. Price \$1. C. W. Bardeen.
- Carlyle's Essay on Burns.* Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by Andrew J. George M.A., $4\frac{1}{2} \times 6\frac{1}{2}$ in.; pp. xx+139. Price 30 cents. D. C. Heath & Co.
- Introduction to American Literature. Part I.* By F. V. N. Painter, A.M., D.D. $5\frac{1}{4} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$ in.; pp. iv+276. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.
- Lyrical and Dramatic Poems.* Selected from the Works of Robert Browning. With an Extract from Stedman's "Victorian Poets." Edited by Edward T. Mason. $4\frac{1}{2} \times 6\frac{1}{2}$ in.; pp. iv+275. Price 60 cents. Henry Holt & Co.

MATHEMATICS

- Plane and Solid Analytic Geometry.* By Frederick H. Bailey, A.M., and Frederick S. Woods, Ph.D. $5\frac{3}{4} \times 8\frac{1}{4}$ in.; pp. xii+371. Ginn & Co.
- Numerical Problems in Plane Geometry, with Metric and Logarithmic Tables.* By J. G. Estill. $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$ in.; pp. vii+144. Price 90 cents. Longmans, Green & Co.
- Algebra Reviews.* By Edward Rutledge Robbins. $4\frac{1}{4} \times 7$ in.; pp. 44. Price 27 cents. Ginn & Co.

MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES

- Doña Perfecta. Novela Española Contemporánea Por Benito Pérez Galdós.* With an Introduction and Notes by A. R. Marsh. $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$ in., pp. xiii+271. Ginn & Co.
- La Pierre de Touche.* A Comedy by Émile Augier, in collaboration with Jules Sandeau. Edited by George McLean Harper, Ph.D. $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$ in.; pp. xvi+149. Ginn & Co.

PEDAGOGY

- An Experiment in Education. Also the Ideas which Inspired It and were Inspired by It. By Mary R. Alling-Aber. $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$ in.; pp. vii+244. Harper & Brothers.
- Chapters on the Aims and Practice of Teaching. Edited by Frederic Spencer, M.A. $5 \times 7\frac{1}{4}$ in.; pp. vii+284. The Macmillan Co.
- Course of Study and Rules and Regulations of the Public Schools of Mt. Ayr, Iowa. Adopted by the Board. $4\frac{1}{2} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$ in.; pp. 44. Ayr, Iowa: Record Printing Co.
- University of the State of New York. Examination Bulletin No. 12, January 1897. Report of Examination Department, 1896. $7 \times 9\frac{3}{4}$ in.; pp. 112. Price 15 cents. Albany: University of the State of New York.
- The Vertical Composition Book. 7×9 in.; pp. 28. Price 5 cents. Chicago: Ainsworth & Co.
- National Drawing Books. Light and Shade. A Manual for Teachers and Students. By Anson K. Cross. $5\frac{3}{4} \times 8\frac{1}{4}$ in.; pp. v+183. Price \$1.10. Ginn & Co.
- Art Education. The True Industrial Education. By Wm. T. Harris, LL.D. Second Edition, from New Plates. 5×7 in.; pp. 25. Price 50 cents. C. W. Bardeen, publisher.

HISTORY AND POLITICAL SCIENCE

- A Bird's-Eye View of Our Civil War. By Theodore Ayrault Dodge. $5 \times 7\frac{3}{4}$ in.; pp. xi+348. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
- A Smaller History of Greece. From the Earliest Times to the Roman Conquest. By William Smith, LL.D. Revised, Enlarged and in Part Rewritten by Carleton L. Brownson. Illustrated. $4\frac{3}{4} \times 7\frac{1}{4}$ in.; pp. viii+423. Harper & Brothers.
- A Short History of Mediæval Europe. By Oliver J. Thatcher, Ph.D. $5\frac{1}{4} \times 8$ in.; pp. vi+325. Price \$1.25. Charles Scribner's Sons.
- Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science. The Street Railway System of Philadelphia. Its History and Present Condition. By Frederick W. Speirs, Ph.D. $6 \times 9\frac{1}{2}$ in.; pp. 123. Price 75 cents. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press.

Thomas's History of the United States

To be accurate and impartial, to give more prominence to the victories of peace than to the details of war, and to make a specific contribution to the resources of good citizenship—these are supreme aims in a school history. In just these respects "Thomas's History of the United States" is unequalled. Only two books approach it. The *Nation* declares Thomas's superior to either of them. The book has just been thoroughly revised, and the narrative has been brought down to the close of 1896. Half leather, with maps and illustrations, 542 pp. \$1.00.

E. G. BOURNE, Prof. of History, Yale Univ., recently of Adelbert College, Cleveland, O.: Thomas's is the most serviceable single volume on the whole period of United States history.

Wisconsin Journal of Education: This may now be confidently pronounced the best text for the use of high schools now available.

SHUMWAY'S A DAY IN ANCIENT ROME. With 59 illustrations. Should find a place in every class studying Cicero, Horace, Tacitus, etc. Sq. 8vo, 96 pp., paper, .30, cloth, .75

STUDIES IN HISTORICAL METHOD. By Mary Sheldon Barnes, of Leland Stanford University. Discusses method as determined by the nature of history, the historic sense, and aim of historical study, with applications. Cloth, 148 pp., .40

METHODS OF TEACHING HISTORY. A collection of papers by leading educators. Edited by President G. Stanley Hall of Clark University. Cloth, 405 pages, .50

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